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ABSTRACT

This paper reports on an Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) project that studied (1) how young people can be enabled to develop employment initiative and entrepreneurial skills as an important ingredient of their education and training and (2) what changes are needed in educational curricula and school practices designed to strengthen young people's capacity to assume responsibility and initiative when faced with changing labor markets and skill requirements. The report begins with a summary of the project, its main conclusions, and policy implications. The remainder of the report is in two parts. The first presents the different rationales for the recent interest in entrepreneurial skills and culture and the complex problems related to a definition of such concepts. Its main purpose is to clarify the issues and developments at stake and to point toward some principal policy implications if entrepreneurial skills and culture are to have an impact on mainstream education. The second part presents concrete examples from 13 OECD member countries in which different kinds of entrepreneurial skills programs have been launched. (KC)

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N° 4

TOWARDS AN "ENTERPRISING" CULTURE

A CHALLENGE FOR EDUCATION AND TRAINING

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Paris, June 1989

FOREWORD

This is the report of a CERI project of enquiry directed at a) how young people can be enabled to develop employment initiatives and enterpreneurial skills as an important ingredient of their education and training; b) what changes are needed in educational curricula and school practices designed to strengthen young people's capacity to assume responsibility and initiative in a situation where labour markets and skill requirements are rapidly changing.

It begins with a summary of the whole work, its main conclusions and policy implications. Thereafter it is in two parts. The first presents the different rationales for the recent interest in enterprise skills and culture and the complex problems related to a definition of such concepts. Its main purpose is, therefore, to clarify the issues and developments at stake and to point towards some principal policy implications if enterprise skills and culture are to have an impact on mainstream education. Part Two presents concrete examples from 13 Member countries where different kinds of initiatives on enterprise skills have been launched.

The text has been prepared by Mr. Colin Ball, Director of the Centre for Research and Innovation in Social Policy and Practice (CRISPP) in the United Kingdom, working closely with the Secretariat and assisted by a small group of experts. The research background to the report consisted of experts' contributed papers on particular aspects of the subject and field visits by the principal consultant and the experts to a number of Member countries to gain first-hand knowledge of policy and practical initiatives.

Given the broad range of socio-economic, educational and pedagogical issues involved in this area, close collaboration has been maintained with the Education Committee's work on "Education and the Economy" and "Education after Basic Schooling", the ILE programme on entrepreneurship, as well as CERI's own Project on the Curriculum.

J. R. GASS, Director
Centre for Educational Research and Innovation

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SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

The context

In nearly all OECD Member countries there is increasing concern with policies and practices directed at strengthening the enterprising capacities of individuals and economies. Although this concern so far has been basically focused on the work place and on employment issues, it seems to be spreading to the potential role that education and training systems could assume in this sphere. It is in such a context that the research leading to this report has been carried out.

The report itself was completed just before the recent OECD Intergovernmental Conference on Education and the Economy in a Changing Society was held in Paris in March 1988. The substantive complementarity of its findings and conclusions with those of the conference are significant. The report has, in fact, addressed one significant aspect of the interrelationship between education and the economy in the context of rapidly changing societies by examining a number of practices and policy initiatives. It concludes that the phenomenon of change, and the many and varied impacts of such change on all aspects of people's lives and on society's institutions, organisations and culture point to the need for "being enterprising". Changes in educational methods are needed, the report concludes, in order to foster competence in "being enterprising" as a vitally important qualification needed by the young as they enter society. This competence means having the ability to be creative and flexible, to be able to take and exercise initiative and responsibility, and to be able to solve problems.

Both at the opening and concluding sessions of the Intergovernmental Conference, very similar messages came through. In the opening session, Mr. Akio Morita, President of the SONY Corporation, described his and other companies' needs for flexible, adaptable, creative and responsible workers and, in doing so, he made precisely the same points about corporate change that we do in our report. He concluded:

> "We must teach ourselves to be agents of change. That requires a lot of creativity and courage, for each day is an educational experiment and experience".

In the light of this and other contributions made to the conference, its chairman, the Hon. John Dawkins, Australian Minister for Employment, Education and Training, noted how widespread was the agreement among those present that a key element of educational strategies designed to reflect and contribute to social and economic change would need to be: "the introduction of new methods to enable the development of skills and attitudes which equip the workforce and society more generally to adapt to and influence change, including qualities such as the habit of learning, curiosity, creativity, initiative, teamwork and personal responsibility...".

The making of the report

The research that informed this report was carried out during the period March 1987-February 1988. Information and views were gathered in four main ways. First, through meetings of a small group of experts, most of whom contributed specalist papers on particular aspects of the subject. The group was deliberately made up of individuals having diverse experiences and viewpoints and included academics, educational administrators, researchers and practioners. Secondly, the principal consultant undertook missions to a number of countries in order to gain first-hand knowledge of practical initiatives, interviewing individuals (ranging from students to policy-makers) gathering printed information and participating in specially convened seminars and workshops. Thirdly, literature searches were carried out and a large body of printed material reviewed. Fourthly, in addition to the contributions of members of the experts group, some countries submitted specially commissioned papers.

The report is structured in two parts. Part One (Chapters 1 and 2) begins by setting out the various economic, social and educational changes and forces which represent the reasons why enterprise skills initiatives are being, or have been, developed and implemented in Member countries. It goes on to examine (Chapter 3) what individual and cultural characteristics and competences are involved in, or required by, enterprises and outlines definitions, in particular of what "being enterprising" means and of what characterises a new form of learning termed "enterprise learning". Chapter 4 then provides an account of the extent to which practical and policy initiatives concerned with enterprise skills and enterprise learning can be found in Member countries, why they have come about, where they are happening, on whom they are targeted, how they are being interpreted and applied, and what can be learned from them. Chapter 5 sets out, briefly, two principal issues for the future: the need for changes in educational methods and the development of a new form of credential for young people entering society.

Part Two of the report summarises, on a country-by-country basis, the detailed information gathered from, or submitted by, Member countries.

The principal findings

One of the central clarifications attempted concerns definition. The examination of practical initiatives in the various countries studied leads the author to conclude that there are, in effect, two definitions of, or approaches to, the word "enterprise" and the practice of it. One which can be termed a "narrow" one, regards enterprise as business entrepreneurialism, and sees its promotion and development within education and training systems as an issue of curriculum development which enables young people to learn, usually on an experiential basis, about business start-up and management. The second approach, which can be termed the "broad" one, regards enterprise as a group of qualities and competences that enable individuals, organisations, communities, societies and cultures to be flexible, creative and adaptable in the face of, and as contributors to, rapid social and economic change. This approach is, in effect, based on the view that society as a whole, and every aspect of living an active and productive life in it, requires precisely the same qualities in its citizens that were stressed by Mr. Akio Morita at the Intergovernmental Conference. Its focus is not therefore about learning about entrepreneurialism (as in the "narrow" approach) but about personal development. What is significant about the implications of the broad approach for educationalists is that it requires changes in education methods and pedagogy towards what is termed "enterprise learning" rather than (as in the case of the narrow approach) changes in the curriculum.

Before setting out the above clarifications the report describes, in both specific detail and in more general terms, the various social, educational and economic concerns and trends which practitioners and policy-makers cite as rationales for the introduction of new policies and practices in the field of enterprise learning.

Four such rationales are then presented, pointing to the importance of adopting the "broad" approach which is most relevant to the needs of citizens in an active and enterprising society.

Having clarified the goals of, and the reasons for, the development of those competences and qualities required by enterprising people and cultures, the report suggests that a central feature of educational practices designed to achieve such goals will be through the use of "enterprise learning". Opportunities for the development of such learning exist in many aspects of current methods of education and training, of school organisation and of vocational and academic curricula. Enterprise learning places greater responsibility on the learner than experiential learning; it requires the teacher to facilitate rather than instruct and organise; and it is project and task oriented.

By analysing the policy and practice initiatives found in the countries examined, the report draws out a number of findings concerning enterprise learning as it is currently being developed in Member countries, notably:

-- while different countries at the policy level and different initiatives at the practical level attach varying degrees of importance to the broader socio-economic rationales, the need for an educational response to societal change is widely recognised;

-- even so, in countries where policies have been developed against an active recognition of the need for change, such policies are still looking for practices through which to deliver them; reciprocally, in countries where practices have been developed, there is often no policy framework which can enable them to progress from the "innovative fringe" into the mainstream;

-- in the few countries where policy and practices are in harmony, developments are still at an experimental stage;

-- approaches based on the "narrow" definition have developed significantly, mainly because the private sector rather than educationalists has promoted them. Indeed, many of the developments have not emanated from Ministries of Education but from other government departments and sectors of interest.

As regards where enterprise learning is happening and who it is for, the report concludes that most practical developments are outside the "mainstream" of education: they are often extra-curricular; "narrow" approaches are frequently based on a view that enterprise is only within the ability of the "elite" while "broad" approaches are often seeing enterprise learning as an innovative technique for the less able, drop-outs, etc. Only in a few schemes is enteprise regarded as being relevant to everyone. Thus, in addition to the policy/practice "gap", a mainstream/fringe gap is evident. Nevertheless, the report finds that much can be learned from existing practice in terms of "enterprise skills" having been clarified and defined by a number of existing initiatives and that the important and difficult problem of how they can be validated and certified is being addressed in several schemes.

The report concludes by identifying two central issues which have to be addressed by any country that wants to stimulate and take the development of enterprise learning further. First, bridging the policy/practices and fringe-to-mainstream gaps means, above all, addressing the challenge which is inherent in introducing enterprise learning. Currently, there is in many countries a legitimate preoccupation in the educational debate about the quality of education and its relevance to the economy and society in terms of content. What the report suggests is that, in changing societies, the concern for "quality" in education cannot be limited to educational content and its definition and measurement. If the outcome is to be not just skilled and knowledgeable but also enterprising individuals, then the educational debate and developments must give equal weight to the quality of methods and processes of work. In other words, what the research leading to this report suggests is that the principal challenge to the introduction of enterprise learning into mainstream education lies in changes with methods of work and pedagogical practice that would foster greater initiatives and creativity on the part of the individual.

Before the onset of both economic recession and structural and technological change, the "passport" which young people needed to make their transition to active life was that which detailed their academic credentials. Those who did not possess it could nevertheless make their way into the world of unskilled work. As the structural and technological changes made their impact felt, new credentials were needed and these have often come to take the form of a second "passport", one which details various vocational skills people possess. Now that the nature of society is characterised, above all, by change in what is employment and active life, it is clear that a third "passport" is needed, one which details and sets out both young and adult people's credentials insofar as their capacities for being enterprising are concerned. Such a passport, which would be based upon "indicators" derived from methods of work and pedagogical practices, would increasingly become a necessary complement to the two other passports and ensure that these will not be invalidated by a society where the capacity of being enterprising will be the most crucial prerequisite for being an active member in society.

Part One

AN OVERVIEW

Chapter 1

THE CONTEXT

As this report will describe, a variety of policies, programmes and projects designed to encourage and enable young people to express and develop what can be termed their "enterprise skills" have been established, many of them in the recent past, in OECD countries. The meanings of terms such as "enterprise skills" are discussed in Chapter 3, but in broad terms, "enterprise skills" can be taken by the reader to encompass those personal dispositions, abilities and competences related to creativity, initiative, problem-solving, flexibility, adaptability, the taking and discharging of responsibility and knowing how to learn and relearn.

As will be evident from the series of accounts presented in Part Two, prepared from information gathered from 13 OECD countries, these policies, programmes and projects take a wide variety of forms. They can be found at various levels of secondary education, as well as in post-compulsory level education and vocational training settings. They are also variously targeted, not just at different age groups, but at different ability groups too. Some are curriculum developments, others represent changes in educational methods, yet others can be seen as new approaches to the organisation and location of education and/or training. All of this will become apparent to the reader in the pages that follow.

But there is another aspect to this variety of approach with which it seems appropriate to commence. This concerns the rationale (or, indeed, the rationales) that underly the initiatives. In gathering information for this report, many individuals and sources of published information were consulted. The individuals ranged from policy-makers to practising teachers and trainers, from academic and expert observers and researchers, to officials and administrators. The terms of reference for the research suggested, at the outset, that the work would be fairly simple and straightforward. In essence, they were:

> to determine why, how, and to what effect, education and training programmes for young people are promoting the acquisition of "enterprise skills".

It appeared, therefore, that the research would be examining initiatives established, generally within the context of upper secondary schools and/or vocational training programmes as part of the process of the preparation of young people for adult and working life. It would be examining, in other words, some innovative and potentially interesting developments at what is often termed the interface beween education and the labour market. It quickly became apparent, however, that the subject-matter and experience relevant to such enquiries was potentially very broad. The perspectives and experience relevant to it include those involved in current mainstream educational concerns, about the quality of education, and the inter-relationship between education and the economy. They include the major trends -- and consequent issues involved -- in the functioning of labour markets, and in the ways that organisations as various as companies and social and community institutions are organised and managed. Or to put it briefly, it soon becomes apparent that an examination of "enterprise" cannot be carried out in isolation from a consideration of the many major and rapid social and economic changes going on currently, and for the foreseeable future, in all modern societies. Enterprise is both the contributor to, and result of, these changes. There is, then, an overall general rationale behind efforts to enable people -- and not just young people by any means -- to develop the kinds of "enterprise skills" referred to above, which is to do with helping people to develop the capacities needed not just to cope with or adjust to the manifold changes affecting every aspect of their lives, but to enable them to see change as the norm, and indeed contribute to it. This general phenomenon of society in change, and the general rationale for "enterprise skills" it engenders is examined more fully in Chapter 2. In this chapter, some rather more specific rationales are described.

These specific rationales and the general one just mentioned -- and therefore the first hint that "enterprise skills" lie at the heart of a number of major and complex issues -- emerge when the question is asked: why has this policy, programme, or project been introduced? Whilst the general rationale is widely expressed, and is thus a common background to all the developments here described, there are four clear specific rationales apparent in the answers to the question:

- There is a rationale inherent in continuing concern about youth unemployment. This leads to "enterprise skills" initiatives being introduced as an addition to the range of measures developed by governments in response to this problem;

- There is another inherent in the current and future changes affecting all those, whether skilled or unskilled, qualified or unqualified, entering or currently in the labour market. "Enterprise skills" are seen as among the many skills needed by those in the labour market, which will have an ever-increasing need for flexibility and versatility;

- A third is inherent in the changing demands that are being placed upon individuals working in or served by the major institutions of society -- including those providing employment. These changes involve people being given, or needing to take, greater responsibility, and being required to have greater powers of creativity and initiative, all of which are seen as "enterprise skills";

- -- And a fourth inherent in concerns about the functioning of schools and education more generally, and in particular about the quality of education and its relevance to, and relationship with, the economy, and about issues such as retention and student motivation. "Enterprise skills" are seen by some as an important component of quality general education, while others see educational techniques requiring enterprise on the part of the student as ones that are attractive to otherwise reluctant learners, and/or which motivate them to acquire basic academic and vocational knowledge and skills.

Each of these four specific rationales is now discussed, three points especially being stressed:

- -- first, the rationales are not mutually exclusive: rarely, indeed does any single rationale lie behind any particular initiative;
- -- secondly, the emphases accorded to any or all of the four vary from culture to culture, from country to country, even from area to area;
- -- thirdly, the order in which the four rationales are discussed does not in any way represent any general order of importance which emerges from the research. For example the "youth unemployment" rationale is of primary importance to some initiatives, because of the cultural and economic contexts which shape them, but of no relevance to others.

The youth unemployment rationale

In some OECD countries at least, there are signs that one of the major concerns of governments during the past 10-15 years is becoming less pressing. This concern is about youth unemployment. From the mid-1970s onwards, and into the early 1980s, youth unemployment rates in many countries rose dramatically. But in some, youth unemployment rates began their downward trend during the past three to five years, and even those countries in which the rates are still high are witnessing some stabilisation.

Table I shows the youth unemployment rates for 10 of the countries that feature in this report.

It is not among the purposes of this report to examine the detail behind the above remarks. Other OECD reports have done this. But a few observations concerning the reasons for the decrease or stabilisation, are in order here.

First, the "baby boom" age cohorts seen in many countries have passed through, so that there are fewer 16- and 17-year-olds leaving school and seeking to enter the labour market than there were, and the numbers will continue to decline in the years to come, at least in most OECD countries, for the foreseeable future.

Table I

YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT RATES IN SELECTED COUNTRIES
1975-1985

(Males and females aged under 24)

	1975	1980	1985	Peak Year
Australia	9.0	12.2	14.3	1983
Canada	12.0	13.2	16.5	1983
France	7.9	15.0	25.6	1985
Italy	12.8	25.2	33.4	1985
Japan	3.1	3.4	4.8	1984
Netherlands	6.3	9.3	23.5	1983
Spain	9.0	28.2	44.7	1985
Sweden	3.8	5.1	5.8	1983
United Kingdom	8.7	13.5	21.9	1983
United States	15.2	13.3	13.0	1982

Source: OECD Labour Force Statistics (various issues).

Secondly, though again unevenly across and within OECD countries, the economic climate has improved. While the economies and labour markets of many areas now look and function very differently from the way they did at the onset of the 1970s, they are, in general, healthier, or at the very least, getting healthier. The improvement may not be permanent, so there is no room for complacency, but such is the improvement in some Member countries, that some experts are predicting that as result of the coincidence of downward demographic trends and upward economic indicators, there may be labour and skill shortages in some industrial sectors.

Thirdly, as youth unemployment rose from the mid-1970s onward, governments introduced, and thereafter steadily expanded a range of education, training and employment measures, for young school-leavers, and in particular, those who would otherwise have been unemployed. Such measures have had the effect of removing young people from the labour force for a period of up to two years in some countries. Thus the drop in unemployment rates shown in Table I is not the result solely of the demographic and economic trends: in some countries at least the biggest influence has come from the introduction and continuation of large-scale programmes for the young unemployed.

So there are no grounds for complacency, and no grounds, either, for any sure hope or expectation that the current healthy economic trends and improvements will necessarily continue or spread in such a way that those individuals, localities and areas which have been hardest hit by both the economic recession and the contemporaneous process of structural change in industry, will benefit from the general improvements.

Overall, there is the stark fact that notwithstanding the trends noted, and the reasons underlying them, youth unemployment rates, across OECD countries, are already generally double what they were in the early 1970s. In addition, the "baby boom" cohorts have not magically disappeared, of course. They have just got older, and in consequence high rates of unemployment among 18-24 year-olds are worrying policy-makers in a number of countries. Some governments have introduced measures for 18+ year-olds, or accorded them higher priority in schemes targeted on the adult unemployed, but many young adults currently face particular difficulties in the labour market, especially those lacking basic skills and vocational qualifications. Allied to this point, there is growing concern across Member countries about long-term unemployment. In Europe, half of the Community's sixteen million unemployed have been out of work for a period of more than twelve months, a third for a period of more than two years. Typically a third of the long-term unemployed (12 + months) are aged under 25, but in some countries the proportions are much higher. These long-term unemployed young people, and those "at risk" of becoming so represent a major, and no doubt continuing concern, not least it is among this group that a "culture of unemployment" (comprised of despondency and dependency) can easily take root.

Just as long-term unemployment (among all age groups) is the intractable "hard core" of the overall unemployment problem, resisting treatment, and remaining as a problem, so too does youth unemployment have its own "hard core". To say that this is long-term youth unemployment, would be an oversimplification. Rather, it is where a number of disadvantageous circumstances accrue together, worsening and continuing the impact of unemployment on particular individuals, groups, localities, areas, even regions. It is where the general changes-for-the-better noted earlier are having least impact, or reaching most slowly.

The nature of this "hard core" problem can be summarised thus. The less qualified academically (and especially in terms of basic literacy, numeracy and communication abilities) and vocationally a young person is, the more depressed (socially and economically) the area in which he or she lives, the more possessed of personal disadvantages he or she is, the more likely it is that he or she will be among the "hard core".

This "hard core"' is part of what James Coleman and Torsten Husèn described in a 1985 OECD Report, as the new "underclass" (1).

> "...youth has increasingly become a stage of 'redundancy'. The need for youth in the labour force has sharply declined, and in recent years even the ability of the economy to absorb new cohorts reaching adulthood has declined. Of special concern is the emergence of what we call a "new underclass", a minority of students who leave school at an early stage without having acquired the knowledge and skills necessary to cope with the complexities of modern society and therefore have small chances of becoming meaningfully employed. But even for youth in general and not least among those with advanced education, there is a troublesome discrepancy between aspirations inculcated by prolonged schooling and what they are likely to achieve in terms of status and economic remuneration".

This continuing concern about youth and young adult unemployment in general, and about the "hard core" in particular, is resulting in a continuing search, on the part of both policy-makers and practitioners, for new ways of dealing with the problem of youth unemployment or for ways of making qualitative improvements to the measures that have been established. Typically, these measures consist of improved retention in upper secondary/post-compulsory education and the introduction of vocational training schemes. Typically they offer learning which partly takes place in the workplace and partly in the classroom. Increasingly, the measures have come to aim at the provision of a broad base of skills, in acknowledgement of the labour market trends described in the next section of this chapter and also at diversity, reflecting the views expressed in another 1985 OECD Report (2), that:

> "Training for various social roles, providing for transition to adulthood and to employment, require by definition a variety of experiences which no single setting can provide...".

For all the above reasons, in a number of OECD countries, "enterprise skills" initiatives are taking their place in measures established for the young unemployed. In part, this is the result of the search for new methods that will appeal to and motivate the young, and which place more responsibility on the learner to learn than to be taught. In part too, it is a response to the changes in industry, in the labour market, and in society more generally, that are described elsewhere in this chapter. But "enterprise skills" programmes are also appearing in order to add another "setting", both for general education and vocational training to the range already offered, and to seek to add another resource to those already available. That resource is the capacity of the young themselves.

Taken in isolation -- that is, as if the other needs and rationales for "enterprise skills" initiatives now described did not exist -- the notion of enterprise-among-the-unemployed might appear as a policy of despair, desperation, or mean-mindedness, saying, in effect, to the unemployed, and especially the "hard core": "enterprise skills will help you manage your unemployment better, and/or help you break out of it through your own efforts, and therefore make you less reliant on others for your well-being or advancement".

Such a view ignores the wider context, and is stated here, albeit in exaggerated form, because inherent in it are the real motivations behind introducing enterprise skills into the measures for the young unemployed. These are, first, a recognition that a means needs to be found to bring out the capacities and abilities of the young, capacities and abilities that neither the young themselves nor society will necessarily discover, and be able to make use of, when teaching (or training) are deemed to be the only means of learning. Secondly, there appears to be a growing recognition that the developed societies of today and tomorrow need considerably more than the basic general knowledge that schooling at its best provides and the skills for work that vocational education and training offer. There is something else, to do with personal qualities and attitudes, towards work, unemployment, social, community, family and personal responsibilities, that is not fully encompassed by either or both of general and vocational education, in whatever quantity, and however delivered. That, in essence, is the rationale behind the introduction of "enterprise skills" initiatives into measures for the young unemployed.

The labour market rationale

During the past 15 years the phenomenon of unemployment, both generally and among young people, has not been the only manifestation of change in the labour market. There have been many others: the principal among them are these:

First, there has been a major decline in the numbers of unskilled jobs of the type that require, among those filling them, few, if any, academic or vocational qualifications, or little, if any, experience. These are the jobs which young, poorly qualified, school-leavers used to fill.

Secondly, as the numbers of jobs of this type, and overall, declined, the "baby boom" provided, at least until recently, an abundant supply of labour, thus making the finding and securing of jobs ever more competitive.

Thirdly, behind the recession which began with the first "oil shock", and accelerated by it and by subsequent events, the nature of jobs has been changing. Continuing structural and technological changes have both been creating a requirement, in general, for an ever more skilled workforce.

Thus, with models such as the Federal Republic of Germany's "dual system" serving as a guide and ideal, the various measures introduced by governments to combat the effects of the recession (manifested in rising youth and general unemployment, in increased competition for jobs, and in the need for higher levels of skill formation and general qualification) had, by the late 1970s, developed into large-scale skills training programmes and the establishment of various forms of post-compulsory education and training provisions.

Across OECD countries, a further visible manifestation of the combination of structural and technological change -- the former coming in general as a precursor to the latter -- has been the change in overall patterns of employment across the three main sectors: primary extraction and production; manufacturing; and services. The first two are declining, while the service sector is increasing, as Table II shows.

Behind these overall shifts in the pattern of employment lie changes in its nature, in all sectors. In general more and more jobs are becoming more skill- and knowledge-intensive. This is not to say that unskilled work in all three sectors is disappearing completely -- far from it. Some unskilled jobs are being further "deskilled" by the introduction of modern technology. But in general, success in the labour market will increasingly depend on the possession of high-level skills and knowledge.

But even such possessions alone are not enough, as evidenced by the manner in which measures for the young unemployed, and, indeed, education and training systems more broadly, have changed since the mid-1970s. Initially, they provided experience of work, as a complement to, or substitute for, missing basic educational qualifications. Then, the provision of specific vocational skills was emphasized, and, ultimately, a broad range of such skills. Most recently, the shift to the service sector has led to greater

Table II

CIVILIAN EMPLOYMENT BY SECTOR IN SELECTED COUNTRIES
1964-1985

Percentages

	1965			1975			1984		
	P	M	S	P	M	S	P	M	S
Australia	10	37	53	7	34	59	6	28	66
Canada	10	33	57	6	29	65	5	26	69
Denmark	15	37	48	10	31	59	7	27	67
France	18	39	43	10	39	51	8	33	59
Greece	49	21	30	35	28	37	30	28	42
Ireland	32	28	40	22	32	46	17	29	54
Italy	26	37	37	17	39	44	12	35	54
Japan	24	32	44	13	31	52	9	35	56
Netherlands	8	41	51	6	35	59	5	27	68
Spain	31	34	35	22	39	40	19	32	49
Sweden	11	43	46	6	37	57	5	30	65
United Kingdom	4	47	50	3	41	57	3	33	65
United States	6	36	58	6	29	65	5	26	69

P = Primary extraction and production.
M = manufacturing.
S = services.

Source: OECD Labour Force Statistics (various issues).

emphasis being placed on the skills and general education required in handling and processing information, on interpersonal skills such as communication and presentation, and on analytical skills.

But other changes going on within employing organisations, and more generally in the labour market, have made the current watchwords not "skills and knowledge" or even "broadly-based skills and wide knowledge", but rather, "adaptability and versatility", or in other words, the "skill" of being able to cope with (at worst) or make the best use of, or (at best) even create, change itself.

In their simplest form, adaptability and versatility can come from what is termed "multi-skilling", so that the process operator can perform several tasks, or the individual can move easily from one job to another, as jobs change, in quantity and quality, as a result of structural and technological change. But adaptability and versatility demand other qualities and abilities, too, for example in planning and decision-making, for the possession of a number of skills does not, in itself, mean that the individual is able to plan and decide upon their best usage. The competitiveness -- either of an individual in the labour market, or of a locality in the national economy, or of a nation within the world economy -- will depend not just on the possession of a broad range of skills and knowledge, but also upon the ability to respond to change, or better still pre-empt it, or even better, create it.

Again, therefore, but from this different set of needs and resulting rationale, one is drawn back to something similar to the "something else" referred to at the conclusion of the previous section. At the national level, this "something else" tends to be referred to in statements of the need for, or the possession of, an "enterprise culture", one in which high levels of skill and knowledge are complemented by qualities of adaptability, versatility and speed of decision and reaction.

Two further changes in the nature of the labour market which have been going on for some time, further emphasize the need for an "enterprise culture". First, there is the availability, organisation and distribution of work in the labour market: more women work now than did so 15 years ago, and more and more jobs are part-time. All three aspects of the notion of "one job, full-time, for life", are already anachronistic. Both to adjust to, and make the most productive use of, a life in which "activity" does not mean the same thing as "working", (in the traditional sense), will require creativity, flexibility and initiative on the part of the individual.

Secondly, another change phenomenon of the recent past has been the growing importance of the small business sector -- or growing importance attached to it. It is small businesses that help give an economy its qualities of versatility and adaptability. Measures to promote and encourage the formation of small businesses and other forms of "local employment initiative" have become an important part of the weaponry deployed by governments, both to foster economic development, and, indeed, to respond to unemployment. Small businesses add to the "enterprise culture" further qualities of creativity, independence of action, and opportunism. They are not just being created by individual entrepreneurs out of strong personal drives and ambitions, they are also being created by the deliberate breakdown of large industrial and organisation units.

What does all this mean for the future? Some labour market trends appear certain to continue, being continuations of those which are already well established:

- Structural and technological change will continue, as will their effects on the labour market;

- This will mean that individuals, communities and nations, if they are to remain competitive or enhance their competitiveness, will need to continue to be versatile, flexible, adaptable, and creative. They will need to learn to treat change as a certainty, to learn to learn, to update their skills and knowledge constantly;

- Small businesses will continue to be an important part of the economy;

-- The availability, distribution and organisation of work will continue to change. The trends here are already established -- part-time work will continue to grow; the balance between female and male workers will continue to change; working time will continue to reduce and leisure time grow.

In other respects, the future is uncertain: "oil shocks" or stockmarket "crashes" may reoccur, and the likely effect of the continued rise of the emergent nations is impossible to estimate. Whatever, both the certainties and uncertainties point to the need for a capacity, on the part of individuals, labour markets, and societies as a whole, to go beyond the ability to cope with change, beyond even the ability to make positive use of change, to the ability to create it. To do so, it is argued, will require "enterprise skills".

The organisational change rationale

Alongside the changes and their consequences we have seen in the economies and labour markets of OECD countries, parallel changes have been going on in their major economic and social organisations and institutions. In part these latter changes are a part-cause, and in part a part-effect, of the former ones.

These organisational and institutional changes manifest themselves in various ways: the powers of many institutions are changing, as are the roles they play in society. Their internal structures -- in terms of management styles, systems of work organisation, and approaches to industrial relations -- are changing, as are their relationships with their clients and consumers and with the community and society more generally. It is neither relevant nor appropriate here to attempt to give a full account of these changes, as they appear in all the institutions and organisations of society. Instead, this section examines three major social and economic institutions. First, it examines companies, as major economic institutions, and employment-providing organisations and, in particular, the changing nature of their methods of work organisation and their management structures, and the consequences of these changes for their employees at all levels. Secondly, there is an examination of the major public service providing agencies, of education, care, health and welfare. These are also employment-providing organisations, but through providing public services, their relationship with their "consumers" (or clients) has a different character from that of product-producing or service-providing companies. Thirdly, there is an examination of the changing nature of those "voluntary" organisations, which are variously termed, and of varying size and importance, from one country to another. But, in general, they encompass voluntary, not-for-profit, charitable, self-help, collective action and community development agencies through which people organise themselves for their own welfare, or for the social or economic advancement of the community in general, or particular disadvantaged groups within it.

Companies

The recession, the introduction of new technology, and of industrial and business systems involving team work and process operations are among the factors that are causing many companies to rethink their management structures and styles, their industrial relations practices, and their corporate organisational arrangements, right down to the work patterns of individual employees. The driving force behind all this is that of improving competitiveness; the watchwords are "knowledge-intensiveness" and "human resources".

What is the practical result of such rethinking in practice? First, there is a move away from the traditional forms of work organisation known as "Taylorism" and "Fordism": rigid functions, structures and manager-employee hierarchies are changing to a position where, whatever the level or the type of job involved, it carries some responsibility. In a meeting of the CERI Governing Board in 1986, participants noted that "Taylorism" and "Fordism" had educational and training consequences:

> Originally conceived as responses to the challenge of mass production with the technical means available in the beginning of the century, and in view of a largely unskilled labour force, these modes of organisation (Taylorism and Fordism) have influenced enterprise cultures, management philosophies and industrial relations in all industrial countries far beyond the sphere of big manufacturing industries. They have provoked processes of both adaptation and rejection on the part of the labour force and of societies as a whole, including the rising demand for, and supply of, education.

So, too, have the new post-Tayloristic practices had a similar effect. Changes in organisational structures or the introduction of new processes which push decision-making and other responsibilities downwards require an increased ability on the part of the individuals affected to be able to take those decisions and accept and discharge those responsibilities (3).

In many cases these changes are the result of new processes and technologies being introduced into the workplace.

For example, one of the particular features of micro-electronics-based work tools is that they are generally highly adaptable through changes in machine programmes and through varying combinations of different machine elements. Such adaptation generally takes place through processes of trial and error in the early phases of application in the work process itself. It results from the search for higher efficiency in which the users (the workers utilising the new equipment) often intervene by indicating dysfunctions and suggesting improvements, both in hard- and software. To which extent this actually occurs depends strongly on workers' capacity to detect problems and to imagine concrete solutions in situations for which they have not been directly prepared through initial education and training or through previous work experience. It depends equally on networks of communication and co-operation within enterprises, enabling the workers concerned to understand the role of their own work with respect to overall business goals and to transmit their observations and suggestions to those in charge of conceiving and improving the new equipment (4).

Furthermore, the integration of formerly distinct work functions due to unprecedented possibilities for rapid collection, processing and diffusion of information seems to have provoked a clearly perceptible move towards more teamwork, more communication across functional divisions, more involvement of individual workers at all levels with global company strategies and objectives. Managers repeatedly underlined that the development of teamwork and the emergence of new jobs at the interface of traditionally distinct functions has created new needs for workers with broad competence profiles and multiple skills ranging from polyvalent team workers, to flexible specialists (Autosynthesis).

Thus, within companies, new technologies and processes are producing requirements among workers for initiative, creativity, problem-solving abilities, team spirit, communication and flexibility. Just as Taylorism, in its time, created new demands on education and training agencies, so too does this newly emerging pattern of work organisation. Thus from yet another set of needs, and resulting rationale, does a demand emerge for the kinds of "enterprise skills" referred to previously. As noted, this demand is not just occurring as a result of changes induced by the introduction of new technologies and processes in the workplace. Even where such developments are not occurring, "top down" changes are producing much the same result. These "top down" changes are occurring because many companies have been forced by market exigencies to examine critically their internal organisation structures and methods as either structural change, and/or the economic recession have threatened their share of markets, or even their very existence. Although this has led in very many instances simply to policies of staff reduction and/or corporate retrenchment, in others there has been simultaneously some effort towards reformulating the objectives and work attitudes of employees. Only in a few companies has the concern for such corporate change not been associated with overall lacklustre financial performance (5).

Where they have occurred, efforts to introduce processes of internal change by managers appear to have been greatly influenced by ideas and techniques developed in the United States and Japan. For example, In Search of Excellence (6), which documents the organisational and employee work characteristics of some leading American corporations, has had a great impact.

The result, in many companies has been the establishment of "corporate enterprise cultures" which have the following practical manifestations:

-- reduction in the number of levels in the hierarchy of decision-making so that decisions are made at, or at least closer to, the point where they are needed;

-- fostering a "let's try it and see" risk-taking philosophy thoughout the company, accompanied by greater corporate tolerance of mistakes;

-- decreasing the size of working groups and units;

-- improving horizontal and vertical intercommunication, whereby people are actively encouraged to talk across speciality and corporate "boundaries";

-- involving everyone in the identification, introduction and promotion of improvements to the content and delivery of their own and colleagues' work, through devices such as "quality circles" and "suggestion schemes". ("Everyone" includes cleaners, security staff, shop-floor workers, etc.);

-- identifying new products, processes and market opportunities through individual and/or team "intrapreneurship", thus fostering a spirit of internal corporate venturing and competition;

-- creating a workforce that is intellectually flexible, committed to the company and its products and services, and capable of responding in a positive manner to change.

It should be noted that one of the ways in which companies are reducing hierarchies and the size of working groups and units is to "contract out" functions formerly carried out "in house". This, too, demands enterprise on the part of those affected, to be able to change status rather than become unemployed.

Thus -- albeit unevenly across companies, both in the case of process and technology-led change and management and market exigency-led change -- corporate cultures are moving away from rigidly functional, Tayloristic "employee cultures" to more flexible, creative "enterprise cultures". All of this change demands not just new skills on the part of workers and managers, but a recognition of the nature and complexity of change itself. All this is well summed up elsewhere in this report in the words of, first, trade unionists and, secondly, a Professor of Organisational Behaviour. Their views are worth repeating here.

The trade unionists say (7):

-- "There is an urgent need to develop a production consciousness and culture, both in industry and in the community... The growth of involvement and participation derives from a sense of responsibility for production, productivity, industry and service."

and the Professor says (7):

-- "The adaptive, innovative and learning techno-cultures are the ones where there is an integrated...relationship between continuously emerging technologies, work organisations, skill formation, and industrial relations...".

Public service providing agencies

In modern societies, human needs are met, and social problems addressed, typically, by the establishment of institutions, and the appointment of professional staff to work in them, financed from public funds, or some mixture of public and private monies. Just as in the private sector, as discussed above, these institutions have evolved functional and hierarchical patterns of work organisation. They often deliver their "products" not to consumers, but to "clients". Such institutions emerged, and have come to play a major role in society out of, first, the need for specialists as a result of the advancement of scientific knowledge and, secondly, the need for the distribution of functions within society as a whole. Institutions are, in other words, a function of the division of labour. Thus doctors and hospitals endeavour to make the sick healthier, schools and teachers educate the young, prisons and wardens oversee incarcerated criminals, and, most recently, trainers and training agencies assist those needing to gain the skills they need to become, and remain, employable, and so on. Unlike companies, public service institutions have not had to face either the "bottom up"(process or technology-led) or top-down (market exigency-led) changes that have been described above. Indeed, Ivan Illich has pointed out that the "market" is a captive one (8):

> "...the bodies of specialists that now dominate the creation, adjudication and implementation of needs are a new kind of cartel. They are more deeply entrenched than a Byzantine bureaucracy, more international than a world church, more stable than any labour union, endowed with wider competencies than any shaman".

Further, Illich goes on to claim that the public service "professionals" do not just enjoy the luxury of a captive market, but they can actually create their own markets. He says (9):

> "At first, new knowledge is applied to the solution of a clearly stated problem, and scientific measuring sticks are applied to account for the new efficiency. But at a second point, the progress demonstrated in a previous achievement is used as a rationale for the exploitation of society...in the service of a value which is determined and constantly revised by an element of society, by one of its self-certifying professional elites".

Notwithstanding the criticisms of observers, such as Illich, made some time ago, the meeting of human needs by professionals and institutions has remained the accepted wisdom. But now, it is beginning to be questioned on two main grounds. First, cost: when the problem or need being addressed is large in size and complex in nature, not all or every aspect of it can be dealt with by institutionalised means when resources are finite. The complexity and scale of problems such as long-term unemployment, multiple disadvantage and deprivation in inner cities, and the so-called "rising tide" of growing numbers of elderly people in many populations, to take just three examples, illustrate this well: there is the recognition that such large and complex problems are not amenable to treatment based solely on institutional provision.

Secondly, as many have noted, there is the problem of dependency (8):

> "In other words a side effect of institutionalised care can be the erosion of individual capacity, to the cost of both the state and the individual. To these two grounds for questioning the powers and

> responsibilities of institutions, others have been added. Policymakers are saying: does the 'division of labour' basis for the existence of professional, institution-based carers still hold good in a society in which large numbers are unemployed. And finally, they are saying: should not these institutions have their own equivalent of the 'adaptive, innovative and learning techno-cultures' being developed in industry?"

Evidence of the fact that institutions are changing, if slowly, can be seen in their increasing tendency to diversify their services (nowhere is this more evident than in the field of post-compulsory education and training, where the client is, in effect, a non-captive consumer), and to begin to see those who have been traditionally regarded as "the problem" as part of "the solution". This latter change requires the professional to facilitate and enable, rather than dominate and disable, and, as will be seen, it is an important part of the methodology of teachers/trainers involved in enterprise skills programmes.

Those changes that are taking place within public service agencies, and in their relationships and methods of dealing with their clients/consumers are not coming about for any simple reason, or set of reasons. A variety of changes and pressures are bringing about change, from political will (often borne out of financial concerns) at the top, to the realisation, among the client/consumers at the bottom, of the fact that they have sufficient capacities to take some powers and responsibilities back, and the time to do so. But whatever the reasons for the changes, it is apparent that the result is that the powers of institutions are changing, with institutional approaches to meeting needs and resolving becoming, first, more diverse and, second, more in balance with approaches based on individual and collective action by the "clients" and the community more broadly. Such changes both require, and result from, the development of "enterprise skills" within and outside the institutions.

Voluntary organisations

Many of the public service providing institutions referred to above had their origins in voluntary, collective endeavour among citizens. Such endeavour required creativity, problem-solving abilities, the acceptance of responsibility and other qualities described previously as "enterprise skills". Thus the field of voluntary endeavour for social and community improvement is an aspect of the "enterprise culture" which has long been in existence in many countries. It is a long-standing cultural tradition, albeit one that has tended to be eroded by industrial, technological, environmental and general economic "advancement", as manifested, for example, in the growth of the powers and functions of the modern public service providing institutions.

But it lives on and has found new outlets. A significant trend in OECD countries over the past 15 and more (in some cases) years, has been the emergence of a new form of enterprise, known most commonly as "community enterprise". Such a form of enterprise is part of the broader field of "local employment initiatives" which forms the focus of the OECD ILE Programme.

Community enterprise is the result of people in areas which have been hard-hit by economic decline getting together to create what are, in effect, community-owned businesses, which create jobs and bring wealth back into an area, or at the very least, stem the flow of people, jobs and wealth out of the area.

This is a field in which, in many countries, rural communities have led the way and, indeed, the historical roots of community enterprise go back to the collective self-help and community actions that characterised the ethos of early settler and farming communities, and that of many of the indigenous peoples before them. In modern times, concern about the economic decline of rural areas existed among those living in them some years before similar concerns became apparent in the industrial areas which were the first to suffer the effects of the recessions of the 1970s onwards. Lacking the homogeneous populations and traditions and cultures of the rural areas, and being more dependent on the modern institutions referred to above, the people of urban and industrial areas needed other forces to catalyse them into action. Inspirational leaders, social unrest and disorder, and the involvement of existing organisations, such as the churches, trade unions, traditional voluntary and philanthropic agencies and newer self-help and community development agencies all appear, in various combinations, in the origins of urban community enterprise.

In these enterprises, which have become an important part of the economic scene in some depressed areas, can be seen much creative and innovative endeavour, stimulated by the adverse conditions in which many of them operate. They represent collective, community benefit-orientated entrepreneurialism, demanding skills and capacities very different from those of the areas' previous generations. In the past, the residents of these areas worked as employees in the major industries which dominated them. They were steeped in the dependent, employee culture. Now the industries have gone, and these areas are developing their own, new enterprise culture.

An interim observation

The common theme that emerges from all three aspects of organisational change that have been examined in the preceding paragraphs can be summarised as follows. Trends are evident in the private, public and voluntary sectors, currently and/or historically, which involve individuals, whether within existing social and economic agencies and institutions, or served by them, either having greater powers and responsibilites devolved on to them, or taking such powers and responsibilities themselves. To be able to accept, or take them, requires, within individuals, a set of personal qualities and attitudes which, as has been noted, are not encompassed by either or both of general knowledge or vocational skills training. Or put another way, these trends create another set of needs and rationale for "enterprise skills".

The educational concerns rationale

Given that before, and during (and no doubt long after) the carrying out of the research which informs this report, other OECD enquiries into major educational concerns such as the quality of education, and its relevance to and inter-relationship with the economy, have been in progress (10), it is not intended to go into great detail here about such issues. The general rationale, and the three specific ones already outlined in this chapter, are being responded to within education systems, at least to an extent, as will become evident. However, inherent in the educational response to the needs and pressures evident in the various rationales are three issues, which can usefully be set down here.

First, there is the question of just what degree of relevance and importance "enterprise skills" have to the "core competences" which people -- young and old -- need in order both to contribute to, and get the most from, active and working life. Or, in other words, are "enterprise skills" initiatives just "innovative and potentially interesting developments", significant only in the experimental fringes of educational practice, or are they, rather, important elements of the "core competences", as important as competence in reading, writing and counting? With some significant exceptions, it has to be said that this research indicates that much of the "enterprise skills" practice that does currently exist is in the marginal, experimental fringe. But, on the other hand, the force of the needs inherent in the social, labour market, organisational and economic changes which have been outlined, appear to be calling for a much greater educational response, and are beginning to find it, at least in current debates at the level of educational policy.

Secondly (and perhaps partly explaining the as-yet marginal educational response at the level of practice) is the fact that "enterprise skills" initiatives are something more than new curriculum "packages". As will be evident in many of the accounts of practice in Part Two, they require new methods which take teachers and trainers into entirely new fields. To put it simply, "enterprise skills" such as creativity and problem-solving cannot be taught, nor can they necessarily be learned through organised experience. They demand something akin to the so-called "three new Rs" (risk, role, reality) described in an earlier OECD report (11) as necessary components of the experience for the learner. All of this moves the role of the teacher/trainer not just from instructor to organiser, but to "mentor", guide and facilitator. In addition, it adds a new dimension to the debate about "quality" in education: if "enterprise skills" should be among the "core competences", then their development will require not just new curriculum packages, but new curricular and methodological processes.

Thirdly, the above argument can be taken further into one about the ways in which education, training and schooling are organised. If an "enterprise culture" is found in societies in which all their individual citizens and all their social and economic institutions and organisations are creative, adaptable, flexible, and opportunist in their outlook, why exclude educational institutions?

The foregoing remarks, as noted, are not in themselves educational rationales behind the introduction of "enterprise skills" initiatives, but rather issues and questions which are consequences for educational policy and, therefore, practice, of the forces for change inherent in the other rationales. If one looks away from such weighty issues of educational policy, through the other end of the telescope, so to speak, one finds in three current concerns about educational practice what are much more recognisably actual educational rationales.

The first is the development of "enterprise skills" initiatives as a response to the requirement to develop new curricula and methods that will attract the interest of what are frequently termed the "reluctant stayers-on". Here, "enterprise skills" initiatives have been established, partly at least, simply to attract and engage the interest of students who will not be attracted to or engaged in what looks in any way like more of the same kinds of content and methods experienced during the years of compulsory schooling. This is the "educational diversification" rationale for "enterprise skills" initiatives, and, as will be seen, it can be found not just in the post-compulsory arena, but also in schemes for potential or actual school drop-outs. As a sole rationale, it has its inherent danger: in short this can be said to be the danger of confining an educational development, which should be for all young people, to the less able, and consequently labelling it negatively in the eyes of many students and their parents.

The second is a closely related issue: how to motivate young people not just to stay, but to learn? Some "enterprise skills" initiatives have been introduced, again partly at least, against the rationale that they are means of stimulating and motivating young people to realise the importance of other skills and knowledge, and so be motivated to learn them.

The third and final rationale was only specifically referred to in one country, but it nevertheless merits mention. Here (Sweden), institutions of higher education expressed the view that students were coming to them, to quote the relevant paragraph which appears later in this report: "without a proper understanding of how to study and learn in the more creative and self-directed way demanded by many university courses". In consequence, initiatives were introduced, designed to help students learn how to learn, through engaging in problem-solving projects created on their own initiative. Such initiatives, and the reasons for them, provide an interesting counterpoint to the danger already noted: if the "higher education" rationale were the sole one, the danger would be that of confining "enterprise skills" initiatives to the academic elite!

The following chapter now sets all the specific rationales which have been cited in the preceding paragraphs into the general context of an account of the magnitude and extent of the major and rapid changes that are taking place in modern societies.

NOTES

1. Becoming Adult in a Changing Society, by J. Coleman and T. Husèn, OECD/CERI, Paris, 1985.

2. Education and Training after Basic Schooling, OECD, Paris, 1985.

3. New Technologies: A Socio-economic Strategy in the 1990s, OECD, Paris, 1988.

4. "The Human Factor in Economic and Technological Change", by G. Eliasson and P. Ryan, OECD Educational Monograph No. 3, Paris, 1987.

5. Enterprise Training in UK Commerce and Industry: Experience and Implications, Centre for Employment Initiatives, London, 1986.

6. In Search of Excellence, by T. Peters and R. Waterman, 1983.

7. Australia Reconstructed, A Report by the Missions Members to the ACTU and the TDC, Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra, 1987.

8. Disabling Professions, by I. Illich, Marion Boyars Publishers, London, 1977.

9. Tools and Conviviality, by I. Illich, Calder and Boyars, London, 1973.

10. See for example, Schools and Quality, OECD, Paris, 1989; and Education and the Economy in a Changing Society, OECD, Paris, 1989, Part One.

11. "Facets of the Transition to Adulthood: Report of a Project of Enquiry", Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, OECD, Paris, 1986.

Chapter 2

THE CHALLENGE OF CHANGE

Societies in the OECD Member countries are being shaken by simultaneous economic turbulence, demographic developments, and shifts in social values and behaviour.

The first chapter of Education and the Economy in a Changing Society observes that there is:

-- "...inescapable evidence that the OECD economies are changing in unprecedented and unpredictable ways. The litany of causes and effects (often inextricably enmeshed) is all too familiar: high levels of unemployment and long-term unemployment; sluggish output and employment growth; sharp declines in manufacturing employment and expansion in service sector employment; intensified international trade competition; changing occupational composition of employment and changing skills and qualifications requirements within occupations; technological innovation permeating production and consumption. The economic and social toll of adjustment has been high and shows no promise of dropping off in the medium term "(1).

"Unprecedented and unpredictable" change is, therefore, the norm, both now and for the foreseeable future, in modern societies. What is unprecedented about it is that it affects everyone, in every aspect of people's lives: it is as if agricultural, industrial, and technogical revolutions happened not just simultaneously, but at the same time as a major social revolution, a major and unexpected demographic change, and several major scientific advances. This chapter seeks to set out briefly just what all this "unprecedented and unpredictable" change means for individuals, in an effort to show how the many and various practical effects of change combine to provide a general rationale for "enterprise skills". At the risk of oversimplification, and therefore overgeneralisation, the effects are here set out as succinct statements about the nature of the changes individuals are facing, with a minimum of explanatory commentary.

In terms of patterns of life, individuals will :

-- be unlikely to have one job, for life;

-- need to be more mobile;

-- need to be capable of creating, or responding in an adaptable manner to, the need for flexible working, social and living patterns, such as part-time work, work at home, self-employment, "do-it-yourself" (in the social, and work as well as the home arena), etc.;

-- need, as a consumer, to be able to make use of new technologies and techniques and keep pace with their changes;

-- need to see change in every aspect of life as a norm, and not an exception to a rule of stability;

-- be likely to experience periods of unemployment, and to use such periods creatively, to create work or engage in other activity, such as continuing education, retraining, community action and enterprise, self-improvement, etc.

In terms of patterns of work organisation, individuals will:

-- need to be able to take or accept greater levels of responsibility;

-- need to be able to work in small work organisation units, often as part of a team, often using several skills for a work process, often communicating with others;

-- need to be creative and take initiatives, in problem-solving, in developing new ideas, and in contributing to the ideas of others;

-- need constantly to upgrade skills and knowledge;

-- need to be able to adapt to new processes, techniques and technologies.

For many individuals, the practical manifestations of change will be the following:

-- both working in, and dealing with, small organisational units rather than large ones;

-- using one's own resources, individually and collectively, to solve problems, meet needs and take action rather than expect or require others to do so, in every aspect of life.

In short, people will need to be creative, rather than passive; capable of self-initiated action rather than dependent; they will need to know how to learn rather than expect to be taught; they will need to be enterprising in their outlook, and not think and act like an "employee" or a "client". The organisations in which they work, communities in which they live, and societies to which they belong will, in turn, also need to possess all these qualities. In other words, this would also constitute the essential characteristics of the active society referred to in the medium-term priorities for the work of the OECD. Those that do not possess this will lag behind change rather than lead it, and will therefore suffer disadvantage and marginalisation by virtue of the uncompetitiveness.

It is not just the unprecedented and challenging nature of these changes that is startling. Their consequences for the conduct, organisation and content of education are, potentially, major. These consequences are not just those of developing and diversifying education and training systems so that they are able, at the initial stage, to ensure that young people enter adult life with the broad skills and knowledge that are the prerequisites for a successful entry into the labour market. Nor are they those of being able to ensure that, at the post-compulsory and continuing stages of education, individuals can constantly upgrade their initial skills and knowledge. The deeper consequences can be pointed to by considering the following questions, conflicts and contradictions:

-- What kind of preparation is task-centred schooling for process-orientated working? Are not schools, and educational policy-makers too preoccupied -- as evidenced in current concerns about the "quality" of education being largely concerns about its content, and about ways of measuring standards achieved -- with the school curriculum and too little concerned about educational processes and methods?

-- What kind of preparation is learning and being organised in a large, hierarchically structured unit known as a school for working in a small, non-hierarchically structured organisation? What signs do schools show of "post-Taylorism"?

-- Is the traditional teacher-instructs-pupil method appropriate to systems of work organisation in which manager-supervises-employee structures are changing to give employees greater responsibility?

-- What kind of preparation is a school culture, in which the pupil is dependent on the teacher, for a life in society in which both independent capacity and the ability to work and organise collectively are going to be needed and valued?

-- What kind of preparation for life and work, in both of which creativity and initiative are going to be vital "skills", is an education which does little to promote either?

-- How can individuals be expected to know how to take and accept responsibility -- as they will have to in society, in the labour market, and in work and social organisations -- when education and training institutions give them little opportunity, practice and encouragement to do so?

-- If the quality of life and work -- that is, the curricula and content of living and working -- are changing, and changing constantly and rapidly, and will go on changing all the time, how can the study of a more or less unchanging body of knowledge known as the school curriculum be a proper preparation for such life and work? If change is the norm in the real world, should it not be so in the world of education?

-- Is rote-learning the right preparation for the creative, innovative, questioning and flexible attitudes that are required by social and work organisations now and in the future?

-- Is a sense that one has "graduated" or "passed the examination" the right attitude to have on entering a life in which one is constantly having to re-learn and improve one's skills?

-- In a changing society, and one that values creativity, is not learning how to learn more needed than learning per se?

-- Do not schools stifle the very heterogeneity and individuality that working and living now require?

-- As the contribution made to this report from Japan puts it: is the very nature of "old-fashioned" schooling not dysfunctional in the challenging age of change in which we already live?

The challenge that all the above amounts to can be summarised thus. Until recently, society has required, in the bulk of its citizens, qualities of conformity, with social cohesiveness thus secured through individuals applying their skills and knowledge to particular economic tasks and social roles in societies characterised by monoculturalism, mass production and consumption, and fairly rigid institutional hierarchies and divisions of labour and functions. The purpose and functions of schools reflected all this. Now rapid and major economic and social changes are disrupting every aspect of the status quo. Qualities of creativity and individuality, of adaptability and flexibility are required by a society which is increasingly multicultural. How is education, and, in particular, how are schools going to be able to respond? In facing this overall question, and such uncomfortable specific questions as were raised in the previous paragraph, some comfort can be drawn from the fact that, when one examines the history of schooling, it is possible to perceive many precedents: first, in the ways that schools and their purposes and functions have adjusted to social, economic and, in the broadest sense, political, change and, secondly, in the constant historical reoccurrence of what lies at the heart of the current questions: what balance is now required between education for individuality (on the one hand), and education for conformity (on the other). Clearly, the challenge of change is that it requires some new form of equilibrium between the two so that the "enterprise culture" is also stable, cohesive, and caring.

What, then, are the historical precedents? This question has been addressed by David Hamilton, of the University of Glasgow, in a study contributed to this research (2). His principal findings in brief are these:

The origins of schooling in their modern form in Europe can be found in the "cathedral schools" of medieval times. These served, initially, the training needs of the church: pupils (discipuli as in "disciple") devoted themselves to the examination and discussion of the body of knowledge contained in theological texts. But the schools also came to develop a second task: evangelism. They sought to prepare pupils for a particular social role and task, that of implementing rather than interpreting canon law, by being trained to become what Hamilton terms "a body of foot soldiers who could patrol the church's 'front lines'". (2)

By the middle part of the 15th century, and the time of the Renaissance, however, schooling began to undergo a period of change. The new civil states sought to harness the power of schooling to suit their own hegemonic purposes, and from this time, schools began to conform more closely to local and national political, social and economic purposes. Here, one sees clear precedents for current dilemmas. The social values which schools sought to embody, transmit and promote were those of "civic humanism", which Hamilton describes as an "ethical outlook that sought to resolve a concern for the autonomy of individual action...with an equal attention to the corporate responsibilities of the State". (2)

The civic humanism of the Renaissance thus took a positive stance towards economic enterprise (money-lending, profit-taking, etc.) and also promoted a new set of ideals about "public service". Throughout Europe, as Hamilton notes:

> "...the autonomy of human thought and human action was enthusiastically celebrated -- in politics (e.g. Machiavelli), in fine art (e.g. Raphael), in religion (e.g. Luther), in science (e.g. Leonardo da Vinci), and not least, in education (e.g. Erasmus). Out of this ferment came the modern world -- a set of structures, assumptions, and institutions which, to this day, continues to reaffirm the ascendancy of humankind over nature". (2)

Nowhere was this ascendancy, at least in the form of economic enterprise, more marked than in city-states such as Venice, whose merchant-venturers were able to pit their wits against the vagaries of nature and, in the process, accumulate unprecedented economic advantage, financial wealth and cultural prestige.

The Reformation brought change. Schooling extended its remit: social groups who had established schools to extend the upbringing of their own young began to intervene in the upbringing of other social groups, and two pedagogic strands emerged. For those groups who had social and economic power, schooling sought to consolidate a culture of opportunity and superiority; for those groups destined to occupy the lower social strata, schooling sought to consolidate a culture of conformity and subordination. In modern day terms, "education for enterprise" was for the power elite.

The Age of Science and Reason -- the 17th century -- ushered in an era of technological promise, raising further possibilities for the development of -- perhaps even the explosion of -- human creativity. As well as ushering in the beginnings of licensed teaching in its present form -- with the task of teachers that of delivering a curriculum devised by others -- the result of this era was not the "explosion" hoped for by some, but another kind of stratification. As Hamilton puts it:

> "Some learners were able, through their schooling, to acquire the social and intellectual power embodied in the scientific knowledge of the day. Their 'free will', so to speak, was enhanced through schooling. Other learners, however, suffered a diminution of their

> 'free will'. They became the objects rather than the recipients of scientific knowledge -- raw commodities to be shaped (i.e. civilised) by tools that science had placed in the hands of others "(2).

So the technological and scientific elite came to join the socially and economically powerful elite as society's custodians of enterprise. But as well as enabling some to join this elite, schooling naturally had the goal of securing a cohesive and stable "commonwealth".

The "harmony with nature" so central to the Age of Science and Reason was upset by the Industrial Age, and schooling was expected, with other agencies, to put this situation to rights. The scale and intensity of industrialisation called for a stronger discipline of schooling. In an age dominated by notions about the economic division of labour, schooling had the crucial task, still, of maintaining social coherence and stability. Among other things, new emphasis came to be placed on teaching as an activity to "draw out" the mind of the learner, as promoted by, for example, Pestalozzi. Through this, young people would be trained to the new outlook required by the spread of factory and wage labour. Understanding was required, on the part of the learner, rather than memorisation.

Towards the end of the 19th century, the relationship between schooling and social stability again changed, and here another strand of the current dilemma emerges. At this time, schooling gradually acquired a new task -- to advance social progress as well as promote citizenship. But progress to what kind of future? As Hamilton puts it:

> "Was the State to stand back and allow social evolution to follow the same laws" as biological evolution (the survival of the fittest)? Or was each State to use its accumulated powers and steer social evolution towards its own political goals? In the event, the latter view prevailed. Schooling was given a new task -- the advancement of social progress. It was to prepare children not merely for civilised adulthood, but also for a state-planned future...schooling was to help individuals find their true place in an ordered, balanced and harmonious social structure...Schooling's attention to the overarching role of the State meant that...views of individualism were tempered by a complementary attention to collectivist values such as 'civic awareness' and 'social responsibility'". (2)

Thus, from the beginning of the 20th century, there has been the phenomenon of the growth of the "Welfare State", in its broadest meaning. In recent years social and economic change have caused its merits to be deemed to be no longer self-evident, with criticism focusing on the concern that the centralism inherent in it is in itself restrictive to progress, whether economic or social. But if responsibility is to be devolved, outwards and downwards, in society as a whole and in its economic and social institutions -- as is argued from all parts of the political spectrum -- to where and to whom should it go? To the "community", the local social or economic unit? Or to Adam Smith's "invisible hand" of the market place? Is it possible to obtain and retain a new form of social cohesion and stability by doing both, while at the same time keeping personal and local "enterprise" in balance with State care, control and planning? For schooling, as Hamilton concludes, one key question is not dissimilar to the one inherent in the "civic humanism" of the Renaissance: "How can the release of human enterprise be reconciled with the promotion of responsible citizenship". (2)

In conclusion, two points can perhaps usefully be stressed. First, part of the current challenge requires what is simply a shift of emphasis on the part of schools, to lay stress on, and seek to achieve the personal development of individuals as a primary, general educational purpose. As will be seen, this lies at the heart of much existing practice. Secondly, for all the historical strands and precedents, what is unprecedented about the present circumstance of change-as-the-norm is that it strongly suggests that enterprise and creativity are qualities which, if social equity and cohesiveness are to be retained while progress is achieved, are no longer for the political, social, scientific, technological, cultural or entrepreneurial "elite" or minority, but for all.

NOTES

1. Education and the Economy in a Changing Society, OECD, Paris, 1989, Part One.

2. "Schooling and Enterprise: Some Historical Observations", by D. Hamilton, Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, OECD, Paris, 1988 (internal document only).

Chapter 3

QUESTIONS OF DEFINITION

Thus far the expression "enterprise skills" has been used under the loose working "definition" set out at the beginning of this report, where it was stated "to encompass those personal dispositions, abilities and competences related to creativity, initiative, problem-solving, flexibility, adaptability, the taking and discharging of responsibility, and knowing how to learn and relearn." This chapter attempts to add greater clarity and precision to the use of this and a number of other terms.

It will be clear from the preceding chapters that the most important concept to clarify is that of what constitutes the make-up of a person who has enterprise -- in other words, an "enterprising individual". It should be noted here that the word "skills" is not particularly helpful shorthand for what have been called "dispositions, abilities and competences".

Being enterprising

Clarity here cannot be gained through brevity. The following "definition" of an enterprising individual or of what "being enterprising" entails is proposed:

> An enterprising individual has a positive, flexible and adaptable disposition towards change, seeing it as normal, and as an opportunity rather than a problem. To see change in this way, an enterprising individual has a security borne of self-confidence, and is at ease when dealing with insecurity, risks, difficulty, and the unknown. An enterprising individual has the capacity to initiate creative ideas, and develop them, either individually or in collaboration with others, and see them through into action in a determined manner. An enterprising individual is able, even anxious, to take responsibility, and is an effective communicator, negotiator, influencer, planner and organiser. An enterprising individual is active, confident and purposeful, not passive, uncertain and dependent.

This description of people who are enterprising can be readily transferred to other contexts. One can talk of, for example, an enterprising organisation, an enterprising community, an enterprising society, even an enterprising school. If they are enterprising, such entities can be said to possess an enterprising culture, or, more simply, an enterprise culture.

It is important to stress that the personal, social and economic contexts in which people and their organisations can be, or need to be, enterprising are many and varied. It can be said that any idea which needs developing, opportunity which needs seizing, problems which needs resolving, or need which needs meeting, requires an enterprising disposition and response.

It is thus important to see an enterprise as any form of undertaking and to eschew the temptation created by modern usage to see the word as synonymous with merely commercial or business undertakings in which those involved are known as "entrepreneurs". These specific forms of undertaking and types of enterprising people can best be distinguished within the broader field of all forms of enterprise by considering current practices in the education and training field, which aim to encourage, enable and promote the development of enterprising qualities and abilities in individuals. Two clear forms of practice are discernible:

The entrepreneur application

As will be evident from a number of the accounts in Part Two of this report, some education and training approaches to the development of enterprise in and among young people are rooted in the belief that, nothwithstanding the above remarks, enterprise is a quality confined to, or one which needs developing only in, entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs are seen principally as people who create businesses, jobs and wealth. They are the modern-day members of the "elite" referred to in the previous chapter. The rationale behind this approach is that economic good health requires entrepreneurialism, and that entrepreneurialism is not within the interests or abilities of everyone. Entrepreneurialism is seen as requiring risk-taking (usually in the financial rather than the emotional or physical sense), and the investment of any or all of time, skills and cash, for personal reward and advancement. The sum total of many personal rewards and advancements is taken to be social and economic progress: from the total of the pursuit of personal advancement by the entrepreneurial few, comes benefit for society as a whole, in the form of jobs and recycled wealth. Policies and programmes to promote and assist entrepreneurialism have become a feature of OECD countries in recent years, and among them, some are specifically targeted on young people.

Among those so targeted, and perhaps the most well known in schools, is the "Junior Achiever" movement, known in some countries as "Young Enterprise". In practice, this involves groups of young people spending time -- generally on an extra-curricular basis -- running for a short period real or simulated businesses. But there are a range of other practical applications: within schools one may find students running permanent school cooperatives, or applying their studies to particular business applications. Not least, students may be able to take business studies courses in school, and such courses are likely to involve both the theory and practice of business. Examples of all these and other approaches can be found among the accounts that comprise Part Two of this report.

The broader enterprise application

It will also be evident from Part Two that other practical approaches are based on a much broader approach to the meaning and application of "enterprise", an approach much closer to that taken in defining an "enterprising individual" in previous paragraphs. This approach is based on the belief that enterprise involves using the imagination, being creative, taking responsibilities, identifying ideas, organising for action, making decisions, managing, dealing and communicating with others, assessing performance, and the like in a wide range of living and working contexts.

At the heart of applications based on this approach is what is usually termed "personal development". Some of the initiatives within the education system, for example, are found as part of, or off-shoots of, those programmes and services established by schools which are concerned either with personal guidance and counselling, or designed to encourage an understanding of society, under curriculum titles such as "citizenship", "social studies", "understanding society", "life and social skills", and so on.

What the two approaches have in common, as will be evident, is that they usually take place outside the curriculum mainstream, although there are a few significant exceptions. But they differ in one important respect. While the entrepreneur-based approaches are a readily identifiable, mostly relatively recent set of curriculum "packages" or "products" (kits, games, packs and other tangible materials abound) -- that is, they are developments of the school curriculum. This is not the case for the broader approaches, which can appear in a wide variety of manifestations, in curricula, in methods, in aspects of school organisation, and, finally, outside the scope of the curriculum and school organisation entirely.

Within the curriculum, as noted, the broader approaches may be related to personal guidance and counselling and/or social studies. But given that some academic and vocational subjects involve, by their nature, some elements of "being enterprising", such as creativity and problem-solving, or lend themselves readily to such activities, one can find "enterprise" in any number of places: design, art, and technology, for example. Wherever it is found, what is found is rarely a defined "package" of the type referred to above, but more a distinctive method or approach. Here "enterprise" is seen as a "how", rather than as a "what": understandably when, as defined earlier, "being enterprising". It is a statement about an approach to life, and not a description of a body of knowledge.

Taking this question of enterprise-as-a-method further, other elements of what is involved in "being enterprising" can be found in a number of educational methods. "Self-directed" and "distance" learning involve one critical element of the earlier definition -- being able to take or accept responsibility. "Experiential" or "action", or "concrete" learning may require initative, management or organisation on the part of the student.

Both currently, and historically, approaches to the organisation of schools can require and develop enterprising qualities among young people. As will be evident in Part Two, some educational innovations for "drop-outs" or unmotivated or reluctant learners seek to stimulate engagement with the learning process by encouraging, or even insisting upon, enterprising qualities.

Finally, "enterprise" can be found outside the curriculum and mainstream of school organisation in, for example, community service programmes, adventure activities, and in various projects which are entirely organised by students themselves.

Whilst the above observations are all made in the context of schools, similar trends can be seen in post-compulsory and youth unemployment/ vocational training settings. In drawing conclusions, a further definition can be offered.

Some conclusions

Relating, first, applications back to the rationales discussed earlier, the "entrepreneur-based" approaches can be seen to be of relevance to only a small part of the environment of social and economic change which has been described. Developing enterprising attitudes and qualities will require something much more than the temporary, time-limited, engagement of pupils in "mini-companies". This application is best seen as a sub-set of the broader approach.

Secondly, the potential starting points for the encouragement of, and opportunity to "be enterprising" are many and various. Wherever there is a need or an opportunity for students' responsibility, initiative, creativity of approach, problem-solving, decision-making, etc., there is an opportunity for the development and practice of enterprising qualities. Whilst "entrepreneurship" can be packaged, as a curriculum "product", it would appear to be less possible when it comes to the broader approach to enterprise, which is a process, not a product.

Thirdly, this process has been usefully termed by some teachers and trainers as enterprise learning, having qualities which distinguish it from both "instructional" (i.e.taught) learning, and "experiential" learning (i.e. learning-by-doing). Enterprise learning may be defined as a project- or task-centred process:

-- which is entirely (from conception to completion) defined by the learner(s);

-- which is centred on real (not simulated or second-hand) projects or tasks of a problem-solving, need-meeting, responsibility-discharging or opportunity-seizing nature;

-- which is supported and facilitated by teachers/trainers/others and not organised or directed by them;

-- which produces outcomes additional to the gaining of academic and/or vocational knowledge and/or experience, for example, in the form of a greater understanding of the values and benefits of being enterprising, for the individual and/or society more generally;

-- which, if it is to address the changes described in previous chapters, must pervade, over a long period, the whole culture of schooling and education and training more generally.

Fourthly, and by way of expanding on a couple of our last points: one clear and obvious conclusion that can be drawn is that "enterprise skills" and "enterprise learning" are not new educational inventions. Looked at in one way, they are simply new names and labels for elements of educational practice concerned with personal development. During the course of this research, many people expressed the view that problem-solving, stimulating curiosity, fostering creativity, developing personal responsibility, and so on, have been important objectives and practices among elementary-level teachers in particular for many, many years. But then many other commentators take this point further and add that all too often such approaches disappear, or at best are experienced only rarely, from the time that young people enter secondary schools. Whereas at elementary level, instructional, experiential and enterprise learning all form part of the pedagogy, in what often seems to be a harmonious and motivating balance, the methods of secondary schools seem to be such that they disturb the balance, laying great emphasis on the instructional, some of the experiential, but little on the enterprise. Notwithstanding this, there are commentators who dismiss enterprise learning as "nothing new" or "part of our normal practice". Both statements, to an extent, are true. But to use them to defend the status quo is to ignore the fact as described earlier, that when societies are changing as rapidly and as turbulently as they are at present, and for the foreseeable future, then enterprise learning methods should assume a more important place in educational methods, especially at secondary and post-compulsory levels, than they currently do. They cannot and should not replace other educational methods, but simply be given greater prominence. Social and economic change point unerringly to the need for greater emphasis on personal development as an educational methods (instructional, experiential) may very well be inimical to them. The term "enterprise skills", as already noted, is perhaps not the most ideal or appropriate one for defining the personal attributes and qualities that such personal development-orientated learning should encompass. But it does begin to specify the content that needs to be embraced by such learning.

Chapter 4

THE PRINCIPAL CHARACTERISTICS OF CURRENT POLICIES AND PRACTICES

To what extent does "enterprise learning", as just described, exist in the policies and practices of education and training agencies in OECD countries? Why is it happening? Where precisely is it happening, and on whom is it being targeted? How is it being interpreted and applied? What can be learned from current practices? This chapter reviews what answers emerge to each of these questions, with reference to the accounts presented in Part Two, which readers may prefer to go through before proceeding with this chapter.

To what extent?

This report has not been informed by a comprehensive survey of existing practice. Its purpose is to clarify, not catalogue. Nonetheless, the overall impression gained is that both quantitatively and qualitatively (with some significant exceptions in the case of the latter), there appears to be much more talk of the need for the encouragement and the development of enterprising qualities among the young, than action. The nettle of challenge is not generally being grasped by the hand of purposeful change. The major social and economic changes described in earlier chapters are not, in other words, as yet producing any major responses in the practices of education and training agencies. The great majority of the initiatives described in Part Two, as already noted, are taking place out of the "mainstream", where the heavy traffic of education and training still rolls along, in the form of the juggernauts of academic knowledge and vocational skills training. Hence, as far as practice is concerned, yes, there is a variety of initiatives to be found across the OECD, many of them innovative, some of them significant. But it would be wrong to overestimate the value attached to them, or the qualitative and quantitative impact they are having, or are expected to have, at least at present.

On the other hand, it would be equally wrong to underestimate what these initiatives -- no matter how modest their size and ambitions -- have to offer to those who are anxious to translate the rhetoric (of the nature and impact of social and economic change) into the reality of practical responses within the education system. Even though accumulated experience is not great, it nonetheless does appear to have much to offer those who wish to make this translation. The nature of this experience will be turned to below, but first it should be said that there are several signs of the rhetoric-reality gulf being bridged. While practical experience is pushing out, from the level of action upwards, so to speak, the rhetoric is also pushing out, from the level of policy downwards.

This latter phenomenon is evident in a number of the contributions made to this study about the policy situation in various countries. In Australia, for example, there is not just a vigorous national debate going on about the way the economy is functioning, and the labour market structured, and the need for organisational, social and technological change, etc. There is more than a commitment to change; there is engagement with it, against a recognition that Australian society will suffer if change does not take place, and take place quickly. Sooner, rather than later, one can envisage these policy initiatives discovering the experience of the existing practical initiatives, to the benefit of both.

A similar sense of purpose is apparent in Japan, where a combination of a highly centralised system of educational administration, and the close relationship which exists between schools and employers, means that the latter can serve to indicate the emerging requirement for "creativity", and the former can, when galvanised by clear political will and policies, ensure its delivery.

While Japan and Australia thus provide the clearest evidence of action from the level of policy downwards, large-scale practical initiatives in the Province of Ontario in Canada, and within the national Youth Training Scheme in the United Kingdom, also indicate signs of the rhetoric-reality gulf being bridged from policy into action.

But all that said, the principal general characteristics of the extent of policies and practices designed to encourage and enable young people to be enterprising as part of their education and training can be summarised as follows :

-- Everywhere one finds a general acceptance of the facts of societal change. That is, the various elements comprising the specific and general rationales presented in Chapters 1 and 2 are recognised. During this research, constant reference was made to them by policy-makers and practitioners. All that varied was the differing emphases placed by different people on the relative importance of the various rationales.

-- In some countries such recognitions find more expression in policies, but these are frequently looking for practices through which to deliver them (e.g. Japan, Australia), or are as yet incompletely formed (e.g. the Netherlands).

-- In other countries such recognitions find expression in practices, but these are frequently looking for a policy framework which might elevate them from the innovative fringe to the mainstream (e.g. various initiatives in Ireland, the United States, Sweden).

-- In yet other countries policy and practice have bridged the gap, but at present, at least, the impact is not on a large scale either because the schemes are still at an early or experimental stage (e.g. Ontario, Canada), or restricted to a specific, limited target group (the young unemployed in the case of the initiative within the Youth Training Scheme in the United Kingdom).

Why is it happening?

What is apparent from the foregoing is that some initiatives, albeit few in number, are occurring because of the formulation of public policies, borne out of any or all of the rationales described earlier. Similarly, one or more of the rationales lie behind many of the "practice-up" initiatives, to a greater or lesser extent, across the spectrum from the economic ones (evident, for example, in the case of the rural initiatives in the United States) to the educational ones (evident, for example, in Enterprise High in the United States, and in the growth of business studies courses in South Australia). But many other "reasons why" are discernible among the various accounts in Part Two, and these include:

-- Consumer demand. While this has not brought an initiative into existence, it has clearly helped some to grow, as evidenced by some of the Australian initiatives, for example.

-- What the contribution from the Netherlands calls "enthusiastic teachers".

-- In Ireland, the historical account of one initiative reveals clearly that feelings of insecurity and uncertainty about the future among teachers strongly motivated them to develop the new scheme.

-- In Sweden, "complaints" from higher education institutions, to the effect that students coming to them did not know how to learn, appear as a "reason why".

It will be evident from a number of the accounts in Part Two that the driving force for the establishment of many initiatives came, in part in some cases, but wholly in many, from people and agencies outside the education system. Undoubtedly the major reason for the development of "narrow" entrepreneurial schemes has been the enthusiastic espousal of them by the private sector, which is therefore one of the external interest groups pushing for change. Secondly, it is noticeable that Departments and Ministries of Employment, Labour, Training, Skills Development, Industry, etc., or agencies related to them, appear as prime movers both of policies and practices or as funders of individual initiatives in a great many schemes, in many countries. Ministries of Education and their related agencies do appear -- for example in Canada, Sweden, and, albeit belatedly, Ireland -- but on the whole it is their absence which is marked in many schemes.

Thirdly, the innovative and enterprising spirit of the voluntary sector, and/or of innovative and enterprising individuals is also worth noting. The accounts in Part Two do not all give specific mention of these sources of motivation, but, for example, voluntary youth organisations and foundations, enterprising individuals, and not least, young people themselves, appear as the moving spirits behind a number of the schemes. In Canada, voluntary organisations such as the YMCA and a youth body, Direction Jeunesse, have triggered certain actions. In Ireland, an enterprising institution of higher education brought about a major curriculum initiative, while in Sweden two co-operatives appear as significant agents of change and development. Perhaps what all this shows is that enterprise itself breeds enterprise, and that such enterprise is more evident outside major institutions than within them!

Finally, what can be termed motivation-through-partnership appears in a number of initiatives; that is, where private, public and voluntary agencies get together, either for general or specific reasons. Through these partnerships the "enterprise cultures" of private and voluntary sectors appears to "rub off" on the rather less enterprising culture of education.

Where is it happening? Who is it for?

If the answers to the previous two questions have a single word in common it is: various. It also appears in the answer to the above two further questions. Just as patterns of the extent of enterprise initiatives, and motivations behind them are various, so, too, are those relating to their location and targeting. In schools, there are examples in Part Two of developments within middle as well as secondary and upper secondary schools. In addition, as noted previously, many observers and practitioners commented that if enterprise learning exists in a clear manner anywhere, it is in primary education. Outside schools, enterprise initiatives can be found in vocational training schemes for the young unemployed (for example in Australia, Canada, Sweden and the United Kingdom), and in other responses to their needs, and in innovative approaches to remotivating school drop-outs (for example in Enterprise High in the United States).

But, as noted earlier, this varied pattern of location does not represent a thoroughgoing penetration of enterprise and enterprise learning into the length and breadth of education and training systems. The pattern is simply one of patchiness. When one asks more precisely: who is it for, the same sense of patchiness appears. It was suggested that whilst, in the past, "enterprise" has tended to be grasped by, or seen as the prerogative of the political, scientific, technological or business "elite", the present circumstances and extent of societal change suggests that societies are entering an age in which all their citizens will need to be enterprising in all aspects of their lives. The educational implication is that "enterprise" needs to be part of the core curriculum and methods of schools. There is little sign of this, as yet, in practice. In part, this field of endeavour reveals signs of the traditional tendency for educational innovation to be thrust upon those young people who seem to benefit little from, or who are poorly motivated to or attracted by, the mainstream curricula and methods of education and training systems. Often these innovations meet with a success that the mainsteam fails to recognise and capitalise upon.

This phenomenon of innovation for the low achievers appears in the field of enterprise. Enterprise learning is at the core of the techniques of Enterprise High in the United States, of ENTRAIN in the United Kingdom, of the CITY programme in Australia, and in the two Swedish co-operatives which are described. In all these applications the clear rationale of enterprise-as-motivation, as a new "spark" for learning, is visible.

Yet this "downmarket" targeting -- which, as already noted, has the inherent danger that it might, in isolation, be construed as a policy of despair ("you have failed at everything else, so you may as well be enterprising") -- is paralleled by an entirely opposite approach: "upmarket" targeting. The notion of enterprise for the elite lives on, in many countries, in particular in some of the initiatives which aim at the promotion of entrepreneurship in the narrow sense rather than enterprise in the broader sense. This approach is not just elitist, but sees the entrepreneurial form of enterprise not as a method, or as a motivating vehicle, but as an addition to the curriculum. In simple terms, knowing about small business and self-employment, and knowing about it by having experienced it, in either real or simulated circumstances, is seen as an extra dimension of the knowledge and skills needed by economies in which such entrepreneurialism is increasingly valued and required, but not by everyone.

In between these two extremes, the curriculum-based initiatives in Ireland and two Canadian Provinces appear to have the intention of broader targeting, but these are all relatively new schemes, and as yet at least they can by no means be said to be reaching and affecting large numbers of young people.

What all the approaches to targeting have in common is that, with the sole exception of those innovations which are imbued with enterprise learning, using it as a vehicle for motivation and other learning, these initiatives take up little time on students' programmes, are often extra- rather than intra-curricular, do not affect more than small minorities, and are often "incomplete" approaches, as is discussed below. In general, therefore, these are marginal initiatives, touching few, and touching those who experience them only to the limited extent possible in short periods of time.

How is it being interpreted and applied?

There are two main comments to make here. The first can be stated very briefly, since it has been made already. There are two main forms of interpretation and application. One is narrowly entrepreneurship-orientated, the other broader, orientated towards the development of enterprising qualities.

The second comment is that in many initiatives, interpretation and application are not complete. That is, they lack some aspects of the ideal form of enterprise learning set out at the conclusion of the previous chapter. In particular, responsibility for decisions and control may not rest with the learner, so that for example what is called an "enterprise" in either the school or the vocational training setting, producing goods or services for sale, or meeting some form of local social need, has the young people merely as its workforce. For the teacher or trainer, the real challenge of enterprise learning is to step back, to facilitate and support rather than organise and control, and this is not an easy transition for many to make. This is, without a doubt, one major impediment to bridging the policy-practice gulf mentioned earlier.

What can be learned from current practices?

Another impediment to bridging the policy-practice gap appears to be that even where there is political and policy will, strongly and clearly expressed, to bring enterprise into the practices of education and training agencies, this will is accompanied by a sense of puzzlement: "if only we knew how", people say. The problem with the notion of "being enterprising" is that it cannot, evidently, be taught, nor is it even a clearly definable body of knowledge or group of "skills" that form part of either the general or vocational curriculum. The quality of "being enterprising" cannot be described or explained easily; it consists of rather slippery notions such as "dispositions", "attitudes", "competences", "personal abilities". Some even refer to it as part of "character".

But current practices do show how one can go about developing this quality. The most obvious feature of many approaches is that they are project-centred. Students, individually or in groups, identify ideas and see them through into action. It is as simple as that. In reflecting upon their actions, the cognitive and affective aspects of what is required in being enterprising can be drawn out. Various starting points for this project-centred approach to enterprise learning are indicated in the examples described in Part Two. They include young people's own interests; various existing subjects on the curriculum; various applications of vocational skills being learned; "in at the deep end" adventure or community service activities; and various aspects of school organisation and management. Something like an educational equivalent of the industrial "quality circle" can be either a starting point or a project in itself; work experience, internship or co-operative education practices could all provide, with a small shift of the imagination, opportunities for enterprise rather than mere experience. There are, in other words, many possible starting points.

Many of the current practices make important and valuable contributions to clarifying the subject matter of "being enterprising", into lists of so-called enterprise "skills". The CITY programme in South Australia lists twelve such "skills"; the ENTRAIN scheme in the United Kingdom has produced a very similar list, but based on four groups of "skills" and two groups of "abilities". In addition, ENTRAIN also provides a description of what "enterprise learning" can mean in the vocational training setting. Also in the United Kingdom, a national examining body has developed -- and is currently testing -- a profile "certificate of competences", defining such competences under eight headings. In the United States, the Enterprise High scheme lists eight "enterprise basics", though these are more concerned with the methods of enterprise and thus further clarify more what "enterprise learning" is than the subject matter of enterprise. Finally, the Entrepreneurial Studies courses in Ontario, and the course called "Enterprise: The Key to the Future in Ireland" also do much to turn the vague concept of enterprise into practical and structured courses, the former dividing up the subject matter into three levels of difficulty, with each course giving credit. For details on all of these, refer again to Part Two.

So an "enterprise curriculum" is emerging from these various practices. However, what emerges most clearly from the initiatives is the fact that what is involved in putting enterprise into practice is the recognition that it is a process, a method of working and set of new relationships between teachers/trainers and learners/trainees which place demands on young people to use their imagination and exercise their powers of responsibility, creativity, management, and initiative, with support from teachers/trainers. It is this change in roles and responsibilities which distinguishes enterprise learning from experiential learning.

Chapter 5

ISSUES FOR THE FUTURE

If education is not only to reflect current and future social and economic trends, characterised by the way societies are changing, but to contribute positively to them, then it will need to develop the very qualities that have been discussed in this report. It will need to be enterprising. In particular, educationalists will need to address these two major issues:

-- How can the policy-practice gap be bridged?

-- How can the existing experience, which is for the most part being gained in the innovative "fringe" of practice, be taken into the mainstream?

Of course, these beg one major question: should these changes occur? The evidence, represented in the social and economic changes that are taking place in modern societies, seems to indicate strongly that they should. The ability to be enterprising is a quality that will be as needed in tomorrow's citizens as specific skills and basic knowledge, both of a high level. Some would argue that it is the most important attribute of all, since, among other things, being enterprising means knowing how to learn and relearn as well as how to adapt and innovate.

Bridging the policy-practice and fringe-to-mainstream gaps means, above all, addressing the challenge which is inherent in introducing enterprise learning. Currently, there is a preoccupation in the debate about the quality of education and its relevance to a relationship with the economy with content. What this research suggests is that in changing societies, "quality" education is not just one which has the right content. If the outcome is to be not just skilled and knowledgeable but also enterprising individuals, then it must have the right methods. Elsewhere in Chapter 2, some difficult and challenging questions were posed, and the majority of them are questions about methods, whether of the teaching/learning process or of the organisation and structure of education. Put in such a form, the questions appear to suggest the need for some major rethinking, particularly in the field of the organisation and structure of education. They look very much like if not "de-schooling" revisited, at least something close to it. But when one considers what the implications are of the more widespread introduction of enterprise learning methods into schools, and education systems more broadly, the questions relating to the teaching/learning process do not seem so taxing.

They amount to amending what is there already: giving more responsibility to learners; grasping the opportunities for single and multi-disciplinary project-centred and process-orientated activities that exist; building from the base of experiential learning to enterprise learning. And besides, there are many signs that enterprise learning builds on qualities that people naturally have. Enterprise is not some kind of new foreign language that has to be learned: it is clearly there, within people, awaiting development.

Considering what the nature of the changes required in educational methods are in that way, it is tempting to see them as easy and straightforward, perhaps even to the point of claiming that they have happened (to the extent that they need to happen and to the extent that they can happen) already. The need to happen, it might be argued, only in a limited and judicious manner: all this talk of "changing societies" is exaggerated; schools and education systems should change in a responsible and careful way; "sea-changes" of educational methods would be disruptive and harmful. They can happen, it might additionally be argued, only to the extent that the major interest groups who influence education want them to happen: parents, in particular, will resist change, or their concern is to see their children obtain the skills and qualifications they need to get jobs, or go on to further studies; most young people are satisfied and at ease with the ways things are. Such arguments amount to "don't rock the boat, major change is neither necessary nor possible".

It is an approach between the extremes of "de-schooling revisited" and "don't rock the boat" that is needed. Complacency with the way things are will be ruinous to any individual or institution seeking to function effectively and productively in a society which is changing. And society is changing; there seems no doubt about that. At the other extreme, if change is approached in a knee-jerk, major upheaval manner, then the effect can be equally ruinous. It is between these extremes that companies who are successfully adapting to economic, structural and technological change are changing internally. Companies, too, are recognising that change is multi-faceted, consisting of not just changing what is produced, but how it is produced: as has been noted elsewhere in this report, changes of work processes, work tools, work organisaton and structures and industrial relations all go hand in hand, so that the benefits of increased competitiveness are accompanied and enhanced by proper corporate care and cohesiveness.

The development of enterprise learning in schools, and more broadly in education and training systems, requires the same sense of purpose visible in companies which have both responded and contributed to change in society more broadly. A changing society's overall goals can be said to be the same as a changing company's: increased competitiveness, while maintaining cohesiveness and care. In general terms, education systems need both to reflect and contribute to such goals. More specifically, a new "product" that education systems might seek to develop, as their contribution to and reflection of societal change can be conceptualised, and the form it could take is now outlined in the conclusion to this report. It is termed the "third passport".

The third passport

Over the past twenty years or so, there has already been a major change in the nature of the credentials that young people need in order to make the dual transition from youth to adulthood and from school to working and active life. Before the onset of both economic recession and structural and technological change, the "passport" which young people needed to possess to make these transitions was that which detailed their academic credentials, their general educational abilities and attainments. Those who did not possess it could nonetheless make their way into the world of unskilled work. Those who did possess the passport would find that employers would use it as a rough and ready indicator of their suitability for different grades of semi-skilled and skilled work, or for entry into various forms of training and higher education.

As the recession and structural and technological change made their impact felt, new credentials were needed and these have come to take the form of a second "passport", one which details the various vocational skills young people possess, and now many young people, on completion of their general education, move into new training institutions to get their second "passport" before attempting, or even being allowed to attempt, to enter adult and active life. Even if they lacked the first "passport", possession of the second could make up for its absence.

Now that the nature of society is characterised, above all, by change, perhaps it is clear that a third "passport" is needed, one which sets out young people's credentials insofar as their capacities for being enterprising are concerned. These capacities, of and for initiative, adaptability, responsibility, creativity, are, as has been noted, not properly encompassed within either the methods or outcomes involved in the gaining of the first and second passports. Therefore, there is also a need to develop "indicators" that would capture capacities for being enterprising. Not only would this imply greater attention being given to methods of work and pedagogy but it could also motivate the young person to secure the other two passports, for which the third alone cannot serve as a substitute. Rather it must be seen as a vital complement and without it the two traditional passports are running the risk of being invalidated by a society where traditional notions of employment and active life are changing radically.

Part Two

EXAMPLES OF POLICIES AND PRACTICES IN SOME OECD COUNTRIES

AUSTRALIA (1)

Early in 1988, Australia celebrated the 200th anniversary of the arrival of the first white settlers with considerable enthusiasm and national pride. But for some time before the celebrations, a national debate had been going on about the functioning of the Australian economy. In 1953 Australia was the eighth largest exporter in the world; in 1987 it was ranked 23rd. Currently 80 per cent of Australian exports (by value) come from agriculture and mining; only 16 per cent come from manufacturing industry. The country has a large international debt, and its economy has been hit by the impact of the EEC and US agricultural subsidies, by the reduced prices being paid for basic commodities, and by the world-wide recession.

There is a growing recognition in Australia of the need for change, evidenced in 1987 by the publication of two important and influential reports: Australia Reconstructed (2), and Skills for Australia (3). The former represents the outcome of an overseas study mission carried out by a team of representatives of the Australian Confederation of Trade Unions and the Trade Development Council. One of the three objectives of the mission was: "to consider the implications of technology, work organisation, education and productivity for international competitiveness".

Australia Reconstructed has many things to say that are relevant to the subject matter of this report, but there is not the space here to go into them in great detail. Two quotations will suffice. First:

> "There is an urgent need to develop a production consciousness and culture, both in industry and in the community.... The growth of involvement and participation derives from a sense of responsibility for production, productivity, industry and service...".

Secondly, the report quotes Professor Bill Ford of the University of New South Wales, who has long been arguing that Australia must learn from the industrial practices that can be found in nations such as Japan:

> "The adaptive, innovative and learning techno-cultures are the ones where there is an integrated ... relationship between continuously

> emerging technologies, work organisations, skill formation, and industrial relations...".

Ford himself points to the implications for education and training agencies by quoting Ricardo Patrella, Head of the EEC's FAST (Forecasting and Assessment in Science and Technology) programme (4):

> "Mastery of industrial skills and of technological innovations will not per se lead us out of the current crisis.... Only an overall policy which integrates the industrial, scientific, technological and social components and which gives a major role to education and training can succeed. Change is a global social process -- to treat its different aspects in separate slices is the surest way to lose control of it".

In Skills for Australia, the Commonwealth government, through its newly established federal Department for Employment, Education and Training, spells out the starting points of a practical agenda for change. It says:

"The world's most successful economies over the past two decades have given high priority to education, skills, and competence at work as vital factors in economic performance ... now we must do likewise".

As in Australia Reconstructed, the recommendations for action set out in Skills for Australia are many and varied, but elements of the two of them are relevant to this report. One recommendation concerns the need to increase participation rates in upper secondary education. The report notes that rates in Australia are low, as compared to those found, for example, in Japan and the United States. The report sets out an objective of having 65 per cent participation rates in Year Twelve by the early 1990s, and it says:

> "Achievement of this target will require new approaches to make the final years of secondary education more attractive and relevant to a wider range of young people".

The report announces the establishment of two schemes (both of which aim to come into operation at the beginning of 1988), which will encourage young people to continue their education and training after reaching the minimum school leaving age. The means will be increasing the level of financial assistance available to those remaining in full-time education or training, and removing the financial disincentives which face young people from lower-income families, and tend to encourage them to move out into the labour market, regardless of its state, rather than remain in education or training. Thus from 1 January 1988, increased allowances known as AUSTUDY were paid to 16- and 17-year-old students in full-time education, while unemployment benefits to 16- and 17-year-olds have been replaced by a new Job Search Allowance which is aid only to those actively searching for jobs or places on training programmes.

A second major recommendation concerns the need to improve the quality and flexibility of education and training systems. The report says:

> "We need ... to examine new ways to impart the less measurable skills on which future prosperity depends -- life-time learning, enterprise

> and initiative, pursuit of excellence, communication skills, teamwork and responsibility ... the foundations of a productive culture".

Thus the Australian government, like the Australian trade unions, emphasizes the need for a "productive culture", and notes the importance of enterprise "skills" in achieving it.

Before going on to describe some of the existing schemes in Australia which will no doubt help the government in fulfilling the intentions outlined above, a third report published in Australia in 1987 is worth mentioning briefly. This is In the National Interest (5), a report by the Commonwealth Schools Commission on "the current state of secondary education in Australia in the context of the Government's youth policies". The breadth of these terms of reference are, as in the two other reports, reflected in a large number of wide-ranging analyses and recommendations. But this report, too, refers to the need for enterprise in education, in this way:

> "In economic terms, Australia will depend more and more on the capacity of all its citizens to think rationally, to apply what they know skillfully and to adapt flexibly and imaginatively to new circumstances. Economic well-being will largely depend on the skills and knowledge which Australia can apply to its problems. We require citizens who can work together creatively, productively, and confidently".

Whilst these three reports spell out in their various ways (though with similar emphasis), the economic rationale for change in Australia generally, and specifically within the education and training system, many of the current initiatives which we now describe have been motivated by, and established in response to, what can be termed more "here and now" practical concerns and issues. During the period of the research, the most important "here and now" issue referred to by educationalists and trainers was the impending impact of the two financial incentive schemes: increased AUSTUDY payments and the Job Search Allowance. The concern amounts to this: the schemes will have the effect of increasing retention rates in upper secondary schools and in training schemes, but financial incentives will not, indeed cannot, guarantee that those retained or those who return will benefit from the experience. Or in other words, as Skills for Australia puts it: "increases in participation alone will not be sufficient to generate the increased skills demanded by our national circumstances". Schools and teachers in Australia recognise that they will have to make their provisions "attractive and relevant" but the question is how? Fortunately, a number of existing schemes provide practical pointers.

New South Wales: The Minister's award for young innovator of the year (6)

In 1986, the Minister for Education and the Minister for Industry and Small Business in New South Wales announced the creation of an annual award to recognise innovative and creative school programmes. An award of A$2 500 would be presented to the student project judged as the most innovative product, process, or service exhibiting potential. In addition to the award, the assistance of the business community would be offered in order to maximise the chances of the adoption of the innovation for the benefit of the students, the sponsoring school, and the community in general. Each school in the state was invited to nominate a project for consideration. Following the assessment of entries by regional directors of education and award co-ordinators, two projects from each region were forwarded to the central judging panel. The award scheme has not focused on recognising project ideas which have solely commercial potential, but has interpreted innovation more broadly, in line with the desire of the Ministers to encourage secondary schools to offer students the opportunity to experiment, plan, and develop problem-solving strategies across a broad curricular front. In assessing award nominations, the judging panel took into consideration: the innovativeness of the product/service/process; its practicability; its marketability; and its social value. The first award was presented, at the end of 1986, jointly to a young person developing a three-dimensional television system, and a group of students publishing educational materials for disabled teenagers.

Now, after two years experience with the award, the New South Wales Department of Education is looking at how it can be developed further, and in particular:

-- how the award can be integrated into existing curriculum subjects and cross-curricula initiatives;

-- how the award can stimulate not just the formulation of ideas, but their instigation and management;

-- how the award can stimulate the development of the role of the teacher towards that of acting as catalyst/facilitator;

-- how the emphasis of the award can move away from competition to recognition.

South Australia: Youth Initiatives Unit [previously known as Community Improvement Through Youth (CITY) (7)

Founded by the South Australian State Government, through its Office of Employment and Training, the CITY programme has, since its inception in 1978, enabled nearly 20 000 young unemployed people (aged 15-25) to identify, design and manage their own projects. These projects must benefit the community in some way and are usually undertaken by groups of young people. CITY assists each group/project with grants, and the services of one of its full-time staff, known as a "facilitator".

The projects which have been initiated by young people through CITY vary enormously, but they include:

-- organising recreational camps for handicapped children;

-- running concerts and music workshops;

-- undertaking research into issues affecting young people;

-- producing art displays and theatre performances;

-- organising campaigns and fund-raising events.

A small proportion of the projects have led to the establishment of permanent businesses or self-employment opportunities. Others have led to the formation of self-help associations and youth organisations.

The Natural Springs permanent campsite/residential conference centre is tangible and impressive evidence of the value of CITY projects to the community. Over a period of three years, a succession of 50 groups of young people from CITY created it, undertaking everything from original site clearance and landscaping, through the building of small residential accommodation cabins (mostly using natural materials), the construction of a large social area/dining hall/meeting room, to the building of toilets and shower facilities. Once completed, the site was handed over to be managed by the Anglican church, which leases it out at low charges to various religious, youth and educational organisations. The site is located in the Adelaide Hills, approximately 50km from Adelaide.

In 1985, CITY staff became concerned to identify the skills developed by young people through the process of identifying, planning and managing their own projects, so that the relevance of CITY to education and training and thus to the labour market, could be made more explicit. In particular, they wanted to identify the transferable skills involved in CITY projects. The result was the identification of what CITY staff called "enterprise skills", any or all of which would be developed by young people identifying, planning and running their own projects. Twelve such skills were identified, as follows:

-- Assessing strengths and weaknesses;

-- Seeking information and advice;

-- Making decisions;

-- Planning the use of time and energy;

-- Carrying through responsibilities;

-- Negotiating skills;

-- Dealing with people in positions of power and authority;

-- Problem-solving;

-- Resolving conflict;

-- Coping with stress and tension;

-- Evaluating performance;

-- Communication skills.

Since 1985, CITY staff have developed their methods of working and resource materials to enable young people to realise, while they are developing their projects, that they are also developing these skills, and, as they complete their projects, to realise the transferability of the skills into other situations. In short, while CITY began as a distinctive form of "youth work", it has developed to the point where it can demonstrate the relevance of the skills it helps the young to acquire, for example, the very needs set out in Skills for Australia and Australia Reconstructed.

Whilst its main funding comes from the Office of Employment and Training, reflecting its major emphasis on working with the young unemployed, since 1983 CITY has been applying its experience and methods of working to secondary schools in the state, through the CITY High Schools Programme (8). Through this programme, CITY staff work with teachers and students to enable the latter to design and manage projects. The programme was established because, from as early as 1981, CITY was receiving requests from schools to come and address students about unemployment and about the ways individuals can respond to it. With one manifestation of increased youth unemployment being more and more young people remaining in school after reaching the minimum school-leaving age, the demand from schools was also for help with developing activities to engage the interest and involvement of these "stayers-on". The post-1988 likely further increase in retention rates, noted earlier, is, according to CITY, likely to increase the demand from schools for the CITY High Schools Programme.

One school with which CITY has worked, through the High Schools Programme, is the Stuart High School in Whyalla, a town situated some 250km north west of Adelaide (9). Unemployment in Whyalla rose from 9.3 per cent in 1981 to 23.4 per cent in 1985 as the major local industry providing employment -- steel -- went into decline. At Stuart High School, the Arts Faculty is extremely popular among students: the numbers electing to enrol in art courses increased by 120 per cent between 1985 and 1986. A study (10) of the school and the arts faculty reported many reasons for this popularity, including "the feeling in the Art block is one of energy, 'busy-ness', concentration and relaxed enjoyment...", and "the students ... themselves are actively engaged in the learning process.... It is notable that a significant number ... pursue their projects outside of classroom time...".

This learner-centred, "busy", project-orientated style makes it hardly surprising that the faculty should want to work with CITY. With unemployment high, it is also not surprising that growing numbers of former students, finding themselves unemployed, have returned to use the school facilities, and no doubt more will do so as the 1988 financial incentives come into force. As a result, the school and CITY were hoping, in 1987, to open a Youth Craft Training Centre on the school campus, which will provide a place for the young unemployed to develop their artistic skills and projects, some in the form of self-employment and small business ventures.

Western Australia: Westrek (11)

Whilst the community service projects undertaken by young people through the Westrek programme are not identified, designed and planned by them, there are a number of features of this programme relevant to this report, since, like the curriculum initiative which has been established in Alberta, Canada and described below, Westrek has a strong focus on the personal development of young people.

Westrek was initiated by the Department of Employment and Training of Western Australia in 1985 and modelled partly upon the California Conservation Corps of the United States. Through Westrek, groups of twelve young people, aged 17-23, all enrolling voluntarily, and coming from a mix of backgrounds, work on a community service project away from home, and live together as a group for a period of about six months. Given the vast size of Western Australia, "away from home" usually means "very far away from home"! Each group is under the supervision of two adult co-ordinators. While working with Westrek, the group's living and subsistence costs are entirely covered by the scheme, and in addition each young person receives a weekly allowance and is paid an honorarium (currently A$560) on completion of the project. The projects are identified by local "sponsoring" communities, with which the groups work as closely as possible during the period of their stay. Westrek aims to make each group as heterogeneous as possible; it is not a scheme for the disadvantaged or unemployed alone.

Thus Westrek, in essence, aims at personal development through what can best be described as "adventurous community service". It describes itself as:

> "A programme to develop skills that assist a person to become self-reliant and to create opportunities for themselves" (12).

And as:

> "A 'whole-of-life' life skills programme, incorporating such skills as: accepting responsibility; self-reliance; group living -- involving tolerance and acceptance of others; problem-solving; decision-making; self-awareness; community relations; work skills; making a commitment" (13).

Westrek was originally entirely financed by the Western Australia Department of Employment and Training, but in its second year (1986/87) additional financing was provided by the Australian Commonwealth government. Over the two years, 19 projects were undertaken. Each project costs a total of approximately A$60 000 to run and considerably more if it is located in a very remote area. During 1987/88, Westrek was hoping to begin to attract substantial private sector sponsorship, but the stock-market crash of October 1987 proved a setback to these plans. In 1987 the first Westrek project for young people still at school was run.

Other Australian initiatives

In South Australia teachers are reporting substantial increases in the numbers of Year Twelve students who are continuing in education to take business studies courses. Numbers enrolled have increased by 42 per cent from 1986 to 1987. These courses involve students, working in groups, in setting up and running small businesses. Together the State Government's Small Business Corporation and two leading companies have established the Youth Business Award: a competition for the leading student-run businesses from participating schools. The business studies syllabus states: "the aims of this syllabus are to encourage initiative and enterprise". It is anticipated that in 1988 the numbers of schools offering business studies courses will double, as will student enrolments. According to the assistant director of the Senior Secondary Assessment Board, the success and growth of the courses reflect a move among students to seek out skills which are practical and which will fit them for employment (14).

He adds:

> "One of the big things the course is doing for students is improving their self-image and their interpersonal skills ... they are enthusiastic about their endeavours".

Modelled on the Junior Achievement movement started in the United States over 60 years ago, Young Achievement Australia encourages young secondary school students across Australia to set up and run their own business ventures. In Australia, they do so over a period of 28 weeks, but out of school hours and usually during Year Eleven. Young Achievement Australia was established in 1977 (15).

Enterprise Units have been established in secondary schools in the State of Tasmania, "bringing students, schools, local communities and business people together to work in close and meaningful co-operation". The aim is to encourage a wide range of activities, from fund-raising for community service programmes to the promotion of entrepreneurship and responsibility and to encourage student-community cooperation. At Oatlands District High School, Year Eight students are preparing and marketing a map of tourist trails in the area, with local businesses contributing advertising and sponsorship. FEEDS (Further Education Enterprise Deloraine Students) is a mini-company established by Year Ten students at Deloraine High School. It is developing a kit of educational materials to be sold in other schools. Groups of students in three schools in the south of the state are collaborating on a tree-planting exercise. One group is responsible for propagation, the second for producing auxiliary equipment such as tree guards, and the third school is responsible for market research, product development and servicing (16).

Lockridge High School in Western Australia has also established a number of enterprise units (17). These are run by teachers and Year Eleven and Twelve students, and are the "trading arms" of four school departments. Out of the physical education department has grown a health studio, membership of which is open to local residents, who can take health and fitness courses under the eye of a young student supervisor. The domestic science department runs a very successful catering business, while the arts department runs a silk-screen printing service. The office and clerical skills department runs an office services bureau providing word processing, typing, photocopying and printing services to local residents, businesses and community organisations.

NOTES

1. Based on *Enterprise Skills: The Australian Context and Experience*, by D. Turner, Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, OECD/CERI, Paris, 1988 (internal document only).

2. *Australia Reconstructed*: A Report by the Mission Members to the ACTU and the TDC, Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra, 1987.

3. *Skills for Australia*, Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra, 1987.

4. In *Innovative Approaches to Work: Learning from Others*, G.W.Ford, for the Commission for the Future, Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra, 1987.

5. *In the National Interest: Secondary Education and Youth Policy in Australia*, Commonwealth Schools Commission, Canberra Publishing and Printing Co, A.C.T., 1987.

6. See New South Wales Department of Education leaflet, *The Ministers' Award for Young Innovator of the Year*, Sydney, 1986.

7. See leaflet published by CITY, *Community Improvement Through Youth*, Adelaide, undated; booklet *CITY and Enterprise Skills: Quotes and Exercises*, Adelaide, undated; and "Learning to be enterprising: the CITY model", D.Turner, in *Initiatives*, August 1985, Centre for Employment Initiatives, London.

8. See kit entitled *CITY High Schools Programme: Community Projects*, Adelaide, undated.

9. See leaflet entitled *YARTS on the Move*, Whyalla, South Australia, undated.

10. *Progressive teachers in Whyalla: School dynamics in an age of uncertainty*, R.White, unpublished study, Adelaide, 1987.

11. Information obtained from the Department of Employment and Training, Perth, Western Australia, includes *1985 Westrek Evaluation Report*,

L.Daly-Holt, P.Oliver, and D.Pugh, Department of Employment and Training, Perth, 1986. See also note 12 below.

12. In *Westrek: The Challenge*, Department of Employment and Training, Perth, undated.

13. In *Westrek: Information for Sponsors*, Department of Employment and Training, Perth, undated.

14. In *It's a far cry from the three Rs*, feature in the *Advertiser*, Adelaide, 17 October 1987.

15. See news report in the *Daily Telegraph*, Sydney, 17 October 1987.

16. Further information on the projects and quotations in this paragraph can be found in *PEP Talk*, newsletter of the Commonwealth PEP coordinating committee, Department of Education, Canberra, June 1987.

17. For further information see *Enterprise Education Programme: A Component of Personal and Vocational Education*, Lockridge Senior High School, Western Australia, undated.

CANADA (1)

Entrepreneurial studies curriculum

One of the most significant recent developments relevant to this project is to be found in Ontario, where the Ministry of Education, with the assistance of the Canadian Foundation for Economic Education, has developed draft courses (at basic, general and advanced levels) in Entrepreneurial Studies for eventual introduction, once tested, in secondary schools. All of the courses will offer credit. When linked to co-operative education courses, further credits will be able to be obtained.

The significance of these courses to this report is the contribution they make to clarifying what "enterprise learning" can mean in practice, within the school curriculum. The purposes behind the courses are set out by the Ministry of Education in Ontario as follows:

> "Entrepreneurs are agents of change. They recognise opportunities for improvement in goods, services and processes. They develop and test ideas in response to these opportunities and plan and implement those ideas which they find to be effective and worthwhile. Entrepreneurs bring a spirit of innovation to an economy and to society..." (2).

From the very outset, therefore, the purpose relates to the need of society as a whole for creative, innovative spirit. Thus the word "entrepreneurial" is not being used in the narrow and specific way that it has been defined and used in this report (to distinguish it from "enterprising"), but perhaps the Canadians can be forgiven for committing this minor sin. Continuing from the above, the Ontario Ministry adds:

> "As we face the challenges of an increasingly competitive world, this spirit of innovation becomes more essential. In addition to nurturing a spirit of innovation, a programme in entrepreneurial studies will also foster a sense of self-confidence and self-esteem in our young people..." (2).

Thus the courses have clearly stated purposes closely related to the personal development of students. The Ministry of Education continues:

> "Entrepreneurial Studies will provide opportunities for students to examine entrepreneurship as the creation of endeavours of all kinds. Students will discover that these acts of creation necessarily require a high degree of vision, initiative and skill, and that the principles of entrepreneurship can be realised just as easily in a not-for-profit

> endeavour as in a commercial venture. Students will determine that entrepreneurship is a broadly-based concept that is as comprehensively applicable as the human drive and imagination which gave rise to it..." (2).

It is worth pausing here to note the emphasis that "students will determine": they will not be taught, or even learn what entrepreneurship is. They will determine what it is.

The Ministry continues:

> "In the study of entrepreneurship, students will examine the nature of entrepreneurial activity and the role of the entrepreneur in our economy and society. They will study the motivation that lies behind entrepreneurial initiative and identify the characteristics and attributes that are important to successful entrepreneurship. There will be an emphasis on the broad application of entrepreneurial skills and attitudes as they apply to a small business enterprise, a large business, government and community programmes, as well as to their personal/family/school endeavours. Students will be encouraged to understand the role of initiative and creativity in all their activities and to appreciate the need to prepare themselves for tasks that will extend their capabilities..." (2).

Thus a wide range of applications of enterprise are set out by the Ministry of Education, which continues:

> "They will identify and develop the attitudes and skills (e.g. analysis, planning and management skills) needed to undertake effective, innovative, entrepreneurial endeavours. Students will recognise the key steps in an entrepreneurial activity as being the identification of an opportunity, formulation and testing of ideas, planning the implementation of an idea, and launching and managing the initiative. They will have opportunities to apply these attitudes and skills to a broad range of possibilities, in the areas of community service, business enterprise, or the achievement of personal goals and aspirations" (2).

It is worth noting that all this resembles very closely the applications and stages of enterprise development identified by Entrain in the United Kingdom (see below). In the Ontario courses, therefore, "entrepreneurial studies" is clearly something very different from "business studies". In the courses, two curriculum and methodological elements appear prominently:

- "Firstly, an orientation towards personal development. The courses begin with activities which help students to assess their personal interests, aptitudes and attitudes, and continue on to the development of the self-confidence needed to create, innovate and communicate with others, and "experience the risks and costs that are associated with (taking) initiatives" (2).
- Secondly, there is an emphasis on self-directed, action-learning, or, in other words, what has been termed "enterprise learning"

earlier in this report. This emphasis is put, by the Ministry, as follows:

-- "...learning activities should be designed to reflect simultaneously the fun, creativity, and excitement that are experienced in innovation and entrepreneurial activity ... students should be encouraged to determine the processes used to identify opportunities, to formulate, and put ideas into action, as well as to develop innovative skills.... Students should be encouraged to feel a sense of involvement in their own learning, to set their own standards of performance, and to practice self-evaluation ... to examine and assess what they have learned from the experience built into an entrepreneurial programme as well as how they might be able to apply it in their working lives..." (2).

It is therefore the breadth of the purposes, content and applications that makes this recent development in Ontario significant. The key aim is stated by the Ministry of Education as being to:

> "...develop self-confidence and apply ... initiative, achievements and creativity to personal, school, business, and community service opportunities..." (2).

The general content of the three course levels (basic, general, advanced) is outlined by the Ministry as follows:

> "... the basic level should provide students with concrete and practical learning opportunities. Wherever possible, it should be designed around the concepts and practices of the particular activity in which students are enrolled. For example, students learning the skills of hairdressing or a building trade should be encouraged to look at opportunities ... where they might be able to contribute to making the operation ... successful ... attitudes, work habits, communication and interpersonal skills, and the importance of self-assessment in daily work activites should be addressed on a regular basis" (2).

> "... at the general level of difficulty students should work on innovative ideas in small, supportive groups. Both in-class and related out-of-school activities should be used to help students develop the qualities that will be important to the success of the entrepreneurial approach to their personal, community, and work-related goals... teachers should encourage students to be creative and innovative in their thinking and, through careful questioning and small-group and individual conferencing. They should help them to clarify their thoughts, explore their ideas, and use problem-solving skills to create carefully thought-out approaches to a variety of tasks and subject matters. Independent and group research projects are particularly conducive to the promotion of innovative thought..." (2).

> "... students ... at the advanced level ... should ... be exposed to the study of a variety of theories of entrepreneurship and self-actualisation. They should be required to conduct a self-assessment of their skills and talents in this area and to search out a variety of situations in which they can experiment with

> innovative ideas. Through student partnerships and self-initiated entrepreneurial activities, students can contribute to both school and community initiatives..." (2).

It will be clear from the foregoing that the Entrepreneurial Studies courses require not just a curriculum, but the development of new methods and styles of working on the part of teachers. In outlining "teaching strategies", the Ontario Ministry of Education points out that:

> "Since traditional classrooms and work environments may not be conducive to innovative and creative behaviour, the physical resources devoted to entrepreneurial studies should be organised flexibly so that students may work individually, in small groups, or in a whole-class setting. The use of group work, the continuous assessment of team or group productivity, and self-development should be an ongoing part of the course. Students should be encouraged to use project work, case studies, field trips, links with entrepreneurs in the community, and library and community research on a wide variety of topics in order to develop the ability to participate in innovative activities and to take on leadership roles" (2).

This means that the introduction of the new courses will require more than the publication of curriculum guidelines. The Canadian Foundation for Economic Education is helping the Ontario Ministry of Education with the process of introduction by conducting seminars across the Province to make teachers aware of the new courses, to inform them of the resources available to assist them, and to help them develop the new teaching skills and strategies required. The director of the Foundation, Gary Rabbior, says that the Entrepreneurial Studies courses:

> "... could easily have gone the route of 'how to set up and run a small business'. But to the credit of the Ministry of Education, it has recognised the much broader potential benefit possible from the study of entrepreneurship. Throughout North America, work in entrepreneurship education has focused on how to put together a business plan. This makes the assumption that the individual is already equipped with all the other entrepreneurial skills and attitudes and all that is required is knowledge of how to put an idea on paper. In reality the establishment of a business plan is probably the last 20 per cent of the study of entrepreneurship. The other 80 per cent is virtually ignored.... The courses ... focus on the motivation behind entrepreneurship, how to identify and assess opportunities, how to formulate and test ideas, how to plan ... initiatives (broadly, including all types of endeavours), and how to implement and manage (them)..." (3).

Rabbior locates the general rationale for entrepreneurship in the macro-economic sphere:

> "The establishment of an innovative, entrepreneurial spirit, partnered with effective knowledge and skills, is too great an opportunity to miss. A generation instilled with a sense of entrepreneurship can bring the requisite skills to its economic activities that will lead Canada into a position of prominence in the future. We need this

> innovative fuel to keep us competitive in a world that is becoming increasingly competitive all the time. But it goes much further. Entrepreneurs respond to challenges, and Canada will face many of these -- for example in businesses, in labour unions, in social programmes, and in regional development. We cannot prepare a generation of 'technicians' to face these challenges. They cannot be content with the status quo and doing what has always been done the way it has always been done. If Canada is to face its international and domestic challenges effectively, we need a generation motivated by a spirit of innovation and accomplishment" (3).

In addition, Rabbior outlines a variety of specific reasons for the development of enterprise skills, some economic, others educational (4). They include:

> Economic:
>
> Virtually 100 per cent of net new jobs in Canada last year were generated by small- and medium-sized businesses which require entrepreneurial skills...;
>
> Larger companies are looking for employees with entrepreneurial skills (intrapreneurship)...;
>
> The economy is becoming increasingly "service"-orientated, and entrepreneurs are essential to the service sector.
>
> Educational:
>
> Entrepreneurship education can contribute to improved school retention ... youth are interested in business and in entrepreneurship... it can turn on lights that have never been switched on before... it tends to be fun and exciting;
>
> Entrepreneurship education provides tremendous opportunities for linking schools to the community and enabling students to make a contribution;
> Today's youth may face "mobility frustrations" and look to entrepreneurship...;
>
> (Entrepreneurship education) can increase the understanding of youth of the ways in which entrepreneurial skills can be applied beyond a small business (e.g. corporations, community service, public sector).

The Canadian Foundation for Economic Education has now proposed the establishment of a national "Entrepartners Program" which will encourage and support the development of entrepreneurship education across Canada through publications, a regular newsletter, an "entrepartner network" (of existing entrepreneurs willing to act as "mentors" to help with entrepreneurship education activities and programmes), an annual conference, a "youth innovation and entrepreneurship award scheme", a summer school programme, teacher in-service training activities, a network of youth enterprise centres, and a national resource centre. Towards the end of establishing such a programme, the Foundation sponsored an inaugural national conference on entrepreneurship education in April 1987.

Personal guidance

In Alberta, another curriculum development has recently been introduced into senior high schools. It is a course called Career and Life Management, and is mandatory for Grade Eleven students, offering them between three and five credits for between 62 and 75 hours of study. Whilst this is a very different programme from the one being introduced in Ontario, its rationale is very similar:

> "There has been a growing recognition that many of our young people are ill-prepared to cope with the ever-accelerating rate of change in our social, economic and physical world, with no indication that this fast pace will decrease. This high rate of change emphasizes the need for self-management skills -- the ability to organise and shape one's life occupationally, financially and socially.... The Career and Life Management Program will provide all senior high school students with opportunities to develop and practice communicating and thinking skills in situations that will help them to build confidence in their ability to cope with the stress of growing up and living in a rapidly changing society..." (5).

The core of the course is organised into five main, inter-related themes: "self-management", "well-being", "relationships", "careers and the world of work", and "independent living". Optional additional themes include "entrepreneurship" (interpreting this as self-employment/business development), and "dealing with crises". This content makes the Alberta course very different from the one in Ontario: it is perhaps best seen as a blending and updating of traditional forms of personal development (although, as noted, this is an important objective in Ontario), and careers education. Perhaps the difference is best expressed by saying that the Ontario course has enterprise at its core, while the Alberta course has enterprise as one among many elements. But it is not an insignificant element. The "self-management" theme includes, for example, communication skills, "the benefits of a pro-active approach to decision-making", and "the need to take the initiative". The optional "dealing with crises" element covers means of coping with "stress and crises" and the "skills, characteristics and knowledge that can be applied to resolve problems and to cope with difficult situations".

Other initiatives

A number of other Canadian initiatives (either national in their scope or confined to particular Provinces) are now briefly described:

Youth Enterprise Program (6). With support from the federal government, local authorities and a major private sector corporation, the YMCA of Canada was, during 1987, engaged in the process of establishing this programme in nine major Canadian cities. The programme aims to provide support and technical assistance to young people (aged under 30) who are eager to set up their own businesses. The training programme includes a three to four month period of intensive training geared to the young person's specific needs. Established small business professionals assist by presenting their own experiences, and experts in accounting, marketing, and finance, etc. run seminars. Each young entrepreneur is assisted by an adult "mentor", who provides advice and encouragement. Those young people who are not able to attend the intensive training programme will get individual attention. The training will be provided through a network of nine youth enterprise centres, the first of which has been established in Toronto.

Junior Achievement. Operates in Canada and, as elsewhere, it assists older students in high schools, who work in groups of 12-15 people, to establish and run "JA Companies". Each group selects the product or service to market and raises capital through a public sale of stock. At the end of the project a shareholders report is issued, dividends paid, and the company liquidated. Junior Achievement in Canada also runs a programme called Project Business. This is for younger (Grade nine) students and aims to increase their awareness of the role of business through a member of the business community meeting students weekly over a 14-week period, generally as part of social studies or personal guidance courses.

Youth Ventures. Established in 1978, this was Canada's first "Community Development Corporation" (not-for-profit enterprises organised and controlled by residents to develop the economy of their local area) to service the specific needs of disadvantaged young people. After exploring the feasibility of various product/service areas, Youth Ventures Recycling, Inc. was established to recover waste paper from offices in the Metropolitan Toronto area. A second company, York Wood Works was established in 1982 to recycle waste wood from industrial pallets into fuel.

The Ontario Ministry of Skills Development. Encourages and supports the formation of enterprises by young people through three programmes. The Student Venture Capital Program was described in the 1986 OECD Report "Facets of the Transition to Adulthood" (7). It offers interest-free loans of up to C$3 000 to students (aged 15 and over) wishing to set up a business venture during their summer vacations. Following the success of this scheme, the Youth Venture Capital Program was established, offering interest-free loans of up to C$ 5 000 to young people aged 18-29 wishing to start up permanent businesses (8). Both these programmes are operated by the Ministry in close association with the private sector, and especially, the Royal Bank of Canada. A similar programme operates in Nova Scotia (9).

In Ontario, the Ministry also actively encourages the formation of Youth Job Co-op, not with funding, but by encouraging local authorities and private sector agencies (such as Chambers of Commerce) to promote the concept and assist young people to form co-operatives, principally to create jobs for themselves during summer vacations. This programme was stimulated by the success of the Hearst Youth Job Co-op, which was set up in 1983 by a group of 15 high school students aged 15-18, with the assistance of a youth organisation, Service à la Jeunesse de Hearst. In its first summer, the co-op found 1 000 hours of contract work for its members. By the summer of 1986, the co-op had 23 members and found 4 500 hours of work. Attractively designed resource books are produced by the Ministry and another youth body, Direction

Jeunesse: much of their content is based on the experience of the original Hearst group (10).

The Student Development Corporation at Malaspina College, in British Columbia, as part of its efforts to link education and employment and to help students secure career-related jobs so that they can earn the money needed to continue their studies, has a programme to assist students to create their own businesses. The programme is operated in association with Kiwanis International and the Circle K clubs, whose members donate their time and expertise and act as "mentors" to the students. During the 1984 summer vacation, 21 student-run businesses were established (11).

NOTES

1. Based on Enterprise Skills: The Canadian Context and Experience, by D. Shuttleworth, by Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, OECD/CERI, Paris, 1988 (internal document only).

2. Quoted from Development of Entrepreneurs: Curriculum Guideline for the Intermediate and Senior Divisions, including the Ontario Academic Courses. Business Studie Validation. Draft. Ontario Ministry of Education, Toronto, April 1987.

3. The Development of Entrepreneurship Education in Ontario, G.Rabbior, Canadian Foundation for Economic Education, Toronto, 1987.

4. In "Entrepartners" Program: A Proposed Program to Encourage and Support Entrepreneurship Education in Canada, Canadian Foundation for Economic Education, Toronto, undated; and address to Inaugural Conference on Entrepreneurship Education, G.Rabbior, Toronto, 26-28 April, 1987.

5. Career and Life Management 20: Senior High School Curriculum Guide. Interim 1987, Alberta Education, Edmonton, 1987.

6. See leaflet entitled Youth Enterprise, YMCA of Metropolitan Toronto, undated.

7. "Facets of the Transition to Adulthood: Report of a Project of Enquiry", Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, OECD, Paris, 1986 (document for general distribution). Further information about the scheme is provided in Student Venture Capital: Guidelines and Application, Ontario Ministry of Skills Development, Toronto, undated.

8. For further information see Youth Venture Capital: Guidelines and Application, Ontario Ministry of Skills Development, Toronto, undated.

9. Described in Developing Tomorrow's Entrepreneurs: Education for Employment in the Year 2000 and Beyond, paper presented at a conference sponsored by Halifax/Dartmouth Metro Council on Continuing Education and the Youth Employment Committee, Nova Scotia Department of Labour and Manpower, by L.Stevenson, Acadia University, Wolfville, 1985.

10. See Youth Job Coops: A guide to organising a successful coop in your community, Ontario Ministry of Skills Development, Toronto, undated; and Coops Resource Book, Direction Jeunesse, for the Ontario Ministry of Skills Development, Toronto, undated.

11. See leaflet An Education in Realism, Malaspina College, British Columbia, undated.

IRELAND (1)

Ireland has undergone considerable economic, social and cultural change since the beginning of the 1960s. Still, by European standards, Ireland is a relative newcomer to widespread industrialisation. In Ireland, as elsewhere, the new technological revolution is beginning to change the nature of work, in terms of how, when and where it is located in people's lives.

The most obvious change that has occurred is the move from agricultural to industrial and service jobs: in the early 1950s over 40 per cent of Irish people were employed in agriculture, while now the figure is less than 20 per cent. Across all sectors there has been a shift from "blue-collar" to "white-collar" jobs. Today, managers and professionals outnumber unskilled labourers. A less noticed, but major, change going on in the work place is increased freedom at work. White-collar workers in particular have a great deal of freedom about how they do their jobs in contrast to blue-collar workers who still experience considerable control over their work by others. As elsewhere, another major shift which is evident in Ireland is the movement away from jobs in industry to jobs in services. At the same time, new technology is influencing the organisation of work -- in particular, how people communicate with each other and how management is organised and structured. Technology also offers greater flexibility in the location and timing of work, thus changing work practices.

The greatest challenge faces young people. There will be no such thing as a single educational or training course, or apprenticeship system, which will equip a young person with all the knowledge he/she needs for a lifetime's employment. They will need regular retraining and flexible attitudes towards "learning to learn". If the demand for jobs continues to exceed the availability of employment, then more people will need to consider part-time and free-lance work, homeworking, self-employment and work in the domestic economy.

Among young people in particular, this demands the development of new attitudes and understandings which were not required in previous generations. One key aspect of this understanding will be that of the need for young people to take a more active and self-determined approach to shaping their lives. Work as it used to be will not shape it for them. Society in the future will need adventurous, enterprising people who have the willingness and ability to take control of their own lives. The big question in Ireland, as elsewhere, is: how can such a spirit of initiative, creativity and self-confidence be developed?

Two curriculum initiatives in Ireland are facing up to this question, and these are now described. The first is presented as more of a historical account than as a description and analysis of materials and methods because it clarifies a number of aspects of the process involved in incorporating a programme on being enterprising into the school curriculum.

Enterprise: The Key to the Future (1)

Enterprise: The Key to the Future is an innovative resource package for young people exploring their career options, which is now being used in approximately 300 second level schools across Ireland, and in courses established for the young unemployed. The package consists of a students' book and video. The aim of the material is to enable young people to develop the confidence to create opportunities for themselves by taking a more active part in planning their own lives and to develop their creativity, assertiveness, self-reliance, self-determination and willingness to take risks. The video focuses on living in a changing society and examines the changing nature of work and employment and investigates opportunities for enterprise within the person, the home, the school, at work and at leisure. The students' book contains seven major sections:

- Responding to change;
- You are a person of enterprise;
- Enterprise in action: at home;
- Enterprise in action: at school;
- Enterprise in action: at work;
- Enterprise in action: at leisure;
- Routes to enterprise: your choice.

The methodological emphasis is on action-learning. Students are encouraged to undertake a wide range of exercises and activities and examine realistic case studies, to explore how enterprise and being enterprising can become an approach to life.

The project grew out of an "in-house" seminar run by the Social Research Centre staff at the National Institute for Higher Education (NIHE), Limerick, in 1983. The task was to consider studies on enterpreneurship undertaken by the Social Research Centre and to see what practical use could be made of them. A local second-level headmaster invited to participate in this small group suggested that the Social Research Centre's findings on entrepreneurship might have some relevance to work going on in his school. He was developing resource materials which aimed to help students develop an adventurous attitude to life, to evaluate their own potential and talents, and to develop self-confidence and motivation. He added: "Why don't we develop this material further, using your findings, and put it into the context of the needs of students living in a society undergoing rapid change? Gone are the old certainties, the fixed set of facts to be learned, tested and rewarded. The production of cogs for an unchanging industrial and bureaucratic machine is no longer the prime concern of education. In the world of change, personal development is back as the primary goal".

The initial idea was for the Social Research Centre (SRC) to develop materials for use in a school course on business organisation (that is, business studies). At that time (1983) Ireland's National Board for Science and Technology was mounting a research programme on Education for Entrepreneurship and Innovation (EIE). It made a grant available to the SRC to enable the materials to be developed. However, preliminary discussions with teachers of business organisation revealed barriers. A rigid centralised examination and curriculum organisation existed which made the introduction of new materials difficult. Discussions also revealed that the teachers themselves felt that there was a "negative" attitude towards business in the school system. Equally, many teachers expressed the view that we had a centralised and examination-orientated secondary school system. This system maintained high academic standards but did not develop initiative or enterprise in our young people. As a result of the discussions, it was agreed that what was needed was an intervention in the school system to overcome negative attitudes. So the original proposal, which had been to develop materials on Business as a Career Option, was modified accordingly.

The next step was a conference for headteachers, school guidance counsellors and teachers of business organisation. The head of the Social Research Centre presented an outline of the thinking behind the proposed new materials and sought reactions. The presentation showed that the materials had aims and objectives similar to those of school guidance counsellors, and it is therefore worth noting here the similarity in this respect of this initiative to the curriculum developments in Alberta and Ontario in Canada. The response of the teachers was extremely positive: they felt that the notion of enterprise in schools had become associated with "mini-companies" and "start your own business" courses. These courses were seen as being run for less able students often placed outside the mainstream of school activities. Teachers therefore welcomed both the broader approach to the meaning and application of enterprise and a greater centrality for its presence in the curriculum. Another reason for the positive reaction of teachers was unexpected: many saw the proposed material as relevant to themselves as well as to their students. For teachers, too, the world of work, and society as a whole, is changing, and they feel the need to learn to adjust and adapt to it.

The materials were developed on a trial basis, tested in practice, and then revised in the light of feedback. This feedback was channelled through a series of workshops involving a number of guidance counsellors and the staff of the Social Research Centre. The first of these workshops highlighted further the uncertainties the teachers themselves felt about the future: for many in the group the first workshop was the first opportunity they had had to discuss the future of work and its changing nature, the impact of information technology, and the personal and professional responses demanded by change. The process that followed from the first workshop was, as noted above, iterative: materials were developed, tested, and revised accordingly.

Eventually, the complete package of resource material was tested more broadly, in selected schools in the Dublin and Mid-west areas. Out of all the testing a number of questions emerged:

-- How could the material be integrated into the existing curriculum?

-- What existing school courses could use the materials?

-- How could timetabling best be arranged to accommodate the need for class usage of the materials?

-- The financial resources of both schools and students are limited: thus the pricing of the material had to be sensitive to this.

All of the above processes took place in 1983, from May onwards, with the I£3 000 grant from the National Board for Science and Technology. The next step was to present the results to the National Board in January 1984. The assistance of students from the Limerick School of Art and Design was recruited to help design the materials into attractive products, and out of discussions with the students (for whom the exercise itself was an "enterprise" project towards their final examination) emerged, among other things, the idea of the accompanying video. The use of a "key" as the symbol/logo of the materials was also the idea of the students, who produced a "story-board" (content outline) for it, and also a full mock-up of the total package, for use in the presentation to the National Board.

The National Board for Science and Technology was very impressed with the results of the project; everyone agreed that the materials should be published and the video made. A commercial publisher willing to produce and sell the printed resource materials was found, but to produce the video, another backer was needed. One was found: by good fortune a member of the National Board happened to mention the project to a senior manager of a major multi national corporation, who was interested. The head of the Social Research Centre was invited to make a presentation at a meeting of the company's sales and marketing managers. Motivated not just by their commercial concerns, but by the fact that they had children of their own, the managers recommended that the company sponsor the video. The final decision, however, took five months of hard negotiation! The video was eventually produced and made available in March 1985, and it was awarded a bronze medal in the educational category at the 1985 International Film and TV Festival in New York.

If the package was to be a success, it would need to be officially recognised as a curriculum unit by the Department of Education. A major national conference was therefore convened in April 1985, at which the material was introduced to an audience of headteachers, guidance counsellors, inspectors and administrators from the Department. The Minister of Education launched Enterprise: The Key to the Future at the conference.

But the story does not end there. The next step was to evaluate the programme. This was done in 1986, through the annual conference of guidance counsellors. Questionnaires completed by them showed the response to be very positive. The evaluation showed that teachers use the materials in a very flexible manner. Even those respondents who had not by then incorporated the package into the curriculum, and particularly into career guidance programmes, indicated their intention to do so in the future. The fact that a quarter of the respondents had never seen the package highlights the importance of publicising the material. But the evaluation also showed that teachers were restricted in the use they could make of the package by timetabling arrangements, which place priority on academic subjects. Four other specific issues emerged from the evaluation:

- -- First, a quarter of the respondents to the questionnaire who had seen the package had not used it. As reasons for this, the teachers cited the lack of time, of resources, and the academic orientation of parents and students. These pointed to the need to show how the package can be incorporated into the existing curriculum, and to show parents and students that far from inhibiting academic attainment, enterprise can enhance it.
- -- Secondly, the evaluation showed that another quarter of career guidance counsellors had never seen the package, highlighting the need to publicise it widely.
- -- Thirdly, sales of the students' book had been adversely affected by schools photocopying and distributing sections of it.
- -- Fourthly, the evaluation showed that teachers use the materials in a very flexible manner, using sections of the book and the video in ways which best suit their needs and circumstances.

One final point should be noted about Enterprise: The Key to the Future?: the total expended by public authorities on the development of the materials was I£ 3 000. Publication was taken on by a commercial publisher, and the video was sponsored by a major company. Whilst the purchase, by schools, of the materials will result in further expenditure by education authorities, this must nonetheless be counted as an extremely cost-effective exercise in curriculum development. Or, put another way, those involved in the project can be said to have worked in extremely enterprising ways!

Enterprise Development

Enterprise Development is a course which has been developed in Galway, in the west of Ireland, by the Pilot Project for the Integrated Provision of Education (2). It was developed in response to the employment problems of the west of Ireland, an area having little industry, poor agriculture, and an undeveloped infrastructure. Small farms and tourism are the area's main hopes for the future, but there are few jobs for young people, and in consequence, many leave the area. The aims of the course are to change the aspirations and expectations of young people, away from:

- -- Dependent employment;
- -- Getting jobs in large firms;
- -- Finding work outside the area;
- -- "Security".

Instead, the course aims to help young people develop positive aspirations and expectations towards:

-- Self-employment;

-- Working in small firms;

-- Remaining in the locality;

-- "Enterprise".

Towards these general objectives, the aims of the course are to develop self-confidence, originality, creativity, resourcefulness, co-operativeness, entrepreneurial ability, and an understanding of the possibilities and nature of self-employment and small firms. The course is aimed at 15-18 year-olds and consists of four sections:

i) Exercises on enterprise

This section lasts eight weeks (two lessons per week) and aims to develop students' interest in the idea of enterprise; knowledge of their personal strengths and weaknesses; creative skills; and powers of self-expression and communication. Activities include an exercise called "making money grow". This involves giving each student a loan of I£1. Without direction or advice, the students then have a week to see how much they can increase it.

ii) Learning from others

This section also involves two lessons per week over an eight-week period and aims to enable students to observe a wide range of small businesses; to understand what concepts such as "marketing", "finance", and "personnel" mean in practice, in business; to understand the different forms of business ownership; and to further develop their communication skills.

iii) Starting up

Over ten weeks (two lessons per week), students go through the process of setting up and running a small enterprise so as to apply what has been learnt in the previous section, and to develop further the relevant personal and interpersonal skills. The enterprise must either make a product or provide a service and be operated either by a group or a partnership. The students work on these enterprises out of school hours as well as within them.

iv) Future plans

During this final short section (four lessons in total over a two-week period), the students review what they have learnt, both about "enterprise" and themselves.

Much of the above is a summary of information published about the project by the European Community Action Programme on the Transition of Young

People from Education to Adult and Working Life. Included in the published information is a section which comments on the role of the teacher:

"The most important resource for 'Enterprise Development' is the teacher, who must:

- -- be a guide and adviser, rather than a source of information;
- -- be willing and able to work in an informal way;
- -- be given some training for teaching the course -- training is much more important than his/her subject qualification, though a commerce teacher or a craft teacher may be useful in a back-up, advising role to the course;
- -- get to know the small enterprises in the area".

NOTES

1. Based on Designing and Introducing an Enterprise Skills curriculum project in Ireland, by J. O'Connor, Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, OECD/CERI, Paris, 1988 (internal document only).

2. For further information see Enterprise Development, No.1 (1987) in the Innovations series about new developments in the field of young people's transition from education to adult and working life, Ifaplan, for the Commission of the European Communities, Brussels, April 1987.

JAPAN (1)

(Note: The full results of the study carried out in Japan to inform this report were not available at the time of writing, in particular those relating to existing practical initiatives in the field of enterprise skills and creativity. This section therefore only provides a summary of the background to, and reasons for, current interest in enterprise "skills" in Japan.)

There is a strong interest in enterprise "skills" in Japan. Since its inauguration in 1984, the National Council for Educational Reform in Japan has consistently pointed out that, in response to the expectations of society to formulate basic directions of educational reform that will respond to future development:

> "Under an overall principle of individuality, the cultivation of the development of creativity, the ability to think clearly, and the power of expression need to be stressed as an essential element of educational policies...". (1)

In particular, the Council has stated:

> "To meet the challenges created through the development of science and technology and the changes in industrial and employment structures, creative people with distinctive personalities are needed". (2)

The youth labour market

The social and economic circumstances of Japanese youth are very different from those found in other industrialised countries. In particular youth unemployment is very low. But despite this major difference, Japan, like other countries, faces the problem of how to make its education system tap the human resources that are necessary to cope with continuous societal changes.

The characteristics of the youth labour market in Japan can be summarised as follows:

-- There is a low rate of youth unemployment.

-- Youth unemployment is not only low in itself, but also low in relation to the unemployment rate among adults, reflecting the fact that young people are given preference in company recruitment policies. Companies prefer to recruit young people because they are cheaper to employ and because of their high level of "trainability" through on-the-job training.

-- Notwithstanding the above remarks, those young people who do become unemployed tend to remain unemployed for a long period.

The "jisseki kankei"

In Japan, schools and employers have a special and distinctive relationship concerned with the recruitment of young people into first-time jobs. Japan's Employment Security Act prohibits direct contact between companies and secondary school leavers seeking employment. The result is that the school has come to play the role of "broker" between school leaver and employer, the latter seeking recruits for life-time employment in the company. As the relationship between schools and employers builds up over time, an implicit contract develops between them: the employer comes to offer a number of jobs each year to the school, and in return, the school introduces to the employer the students of the type the employer is seeking. This relationship has been termed by Hiroaki Mimizuka (1) as "jisseki kankei" (relationship based on past results), having some similarity with the school-employer "Compacts" which have been established in the United States of America (3), but having a much longer history. The relationship serves to guarantee secondary school-leavers (provided they reach the necessary standards) a smooth transition from school to employment.

The relationship acts as a strong incentive to students. The school, anxious to develop its relationship with particular enterprises, will want to recommend the best students to them, students who have achieved good standards, and who have not been prone to absenteeism. A United States study of the relationship commented that:

> "... (it) provides a potent signal to all that by remaining within the school system the student has a better chance to get a job upon completion of his or her studies" (4).

In addition, this school-employer relationship also provides clear and direct signals to schools: if employers want more creative and enterprising employees, then they have only to make such wishes known through the "jisseki kankei".

The educational context

Ever since the modernisation of Japanese society began in the Meiji era (1886-1912), Japan has been creating a highly educated society, both qualitatively and quantitatively, a society in which the contribution of the education system to economic growth is highly valued. A study by the Japanese government (5) has calculated that 25 per cent of the gross increase in national income between 1930 and 1955 was due to the increase in educational capital -- that is, to the accumulated sum of educational investment in human resources.

This outcome was made possible by two characteristics of Japanese education. Firstly, the uniformity of the education system: there is a nationally uniform system of compulsory education, and a centralised administrative system with the Ministry of Education at its core, which, inter alia, authorises textbooks and certifies teachers. Secondly, there has been a focus on the introduction and internalisation of Western knowledge and technology. Since the beginning of the modernisation there has been a long-term national objective to catch up and overtake Western countries.

But this process of educational development has not been without its drawbacks. There is current concern about the increase in "ijime" (bullying), violence among students, and between students and teachers, excessive competition to enter "good" schools, and, not least, a recognition that Japanese education has developed characteristics that are not suited to the cultivation of creativity. Hiroaki Mimizuka notes, for example:

> "One of the objectives of Japanese education was to effectively incorporate Western knowledge and technology, which has been more or less achieved by now. In such an environment, the general population came to believe that learning was effectively memorising what is given ... studying for entrance exams where memory work is highly valued. It would be fair to say that education that emphasizes high achievement of this kind does not encourage the emergence of originality or creativity" (1).

The social context

Presently, there is a growing sense of crisis in Japanese society based on a feeling that future societal changes -- changes that will value and place a premium on human creativity -- might make the old-fashioned school system dysfunctional. These societal changes -- some presently occurring, others deemed sure to become pronounced in the future -- are: rapid development of science and technology; "informatisation"; the need for higher educational levels in the labour force; and changes in industrial, employment, and occupational structure.

The changes in industrial and occupational structure include:

-- The increase in numbers of workers in the tertiary (service) sector, and the parallel decreases in the primary and secondary sectors: 57.6 per cent of Japanese workers were working in the tertiary sector in 1985 as compared to 46.5 per cent in 1970.

-- Office and factory automation and computerisation.

-- The demand for highly skilled engineers. Automation and computerisation in both factories and offices decrease the demand for low-skilled assembly line workers and increase the need for highly skilled "engineers", professionals and technicians. Signs of shortages are already visible.

-- Continuous change is the norm.

The changes in employment structure caused by these changes in industrial and occupational structure include:

-- A declining demand for young people in the workforce, which thus disturbs the traditional link between students, their schools and employers.

-- Changes in the occupational distribution of upper secondary school-leavers. In factories and offices, a significant amount of technician and clerical work is being replaced by office automation and robotic devices. As a result, more secondary school-leavers will in the future go into sales and services, but will face competition there from older women. It is possible, therefore, that the low level of youth unemployment may not be sustained.

-- Increased mobility within and between firms. An important feature of recruitment, as noted earlier, has been that it has been for life-time employment in the firm. But with the job content of workers changing, they can no longer expect to remain permanently in a particular occupation, workplace or job, but will be required, perhaps frequently, regularly to change all three. Given the tradition of life-time employment, while some firms may recruit people from outside to fill skill and knowledge gaps, it seems more likely that firms will transfer people internally after retraining. Thus on entering employment, young people will need to have flexible attitudes.

In summary, it can be said that employers are, increasingly, looking for the following characteristics among recruited employees:

-- young workers who possess a new mix of skills and knowledge;

-- employees who are able to adapt to change.

It is not only the National Council for Educational Reform that is interpreting these changing requirements as a demand for the education system to give increased attention to enterprise "skills", and in particular, creativity. Two recent reports from other Japanese sources have expressed much the same view.

A 1987 report (6) from the Japanese Committee for Economic Development -- one of four major associations of industrialists in Japan -- can be summarised thus. Until the early 1970s, the major objective of enterprises was the expansion of scale. Human resources policy focused on the employment of a mass of generalists with good school grades, selecting future executives and managers from among them. After the "oil shocks", however, the social and economic environment changed substantially: it fuelled new scientific and technological development, and the information and service age arrived. Quantitative expansion came to be reconsidered, and recruitment policies shifted, with the emphasis not on homogeneity of the workforce, but on finding people with distinctive qualities and abilities, including individuality and creativity, a willingness to face new challenges, and increased professional abilities.

A second 1987 report (7) came from the Ministry of Labour. It observed that changes in the occupational structure used to be achieved mainly through the recruitment of secondary school-leavers and middle aged women -- that is, bringing people into jobs who were previously not working. Now it is envisaged that there will be greater mobility in the labour force, with people moving across the boundaries of jobs, firms and industries from "labour redundant" sectors to "labour shortage sectors". This will demand flexible attitudes and skills on the part of workers and improved levels of skill formation and knowledge.

NOTES

1. Based on The Cultivation of Creativity in Upper Secondary Education: Enterprise skills and programs for their cultivation in Japan, H.Mimizuka, Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, OECD, Paris, 1988.(internal document only).

2. Fourth Report on Education Reform, National Council for Educational Reform, Tokyo, 1987.

3. See for example, The Boston Compact, by D.Grayson, in Initiatives, April 1987, Centre for Employment Initiatives, London.

4. In Japanese Education Today, U.S.Department of Education, Washington D.C., 1987.

5. Development and Education of Japan -- Educational Development and Economic Growth, Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, Tokyo, 1962.

6. Human Resources Needed in Future Society, by K.Doyukai, Japan Committee for Economic Development, Tokyo, 1987.

7. Human Resources Development in the Era of Occupational and Structural Changes: A Prescription to the Era of Structural Unemployment, Ministry of Labour, Tokyo, 1987.

THE NETHERLANDS (1)

Both to inform its contribution to this research, and to determine what, if any, improvements need to be made in the ways in which students in vocational and general secondary education in the Netherlands can be made more familiar with the concept of enterprise, the Ministry of Education and Science commissioned consultants to carry out a study to determine:

-- what trends in the teaching of enterprise are evident in the different types of school, and what curricula and teaching and learning aids have been developed;

-- what approach can best be taken in the different types of schools with a view to acquainting pupils with enterprise;

-- how the trends and the existing situation in the different types of schools can be built upon to achieve the desired aims.

The full results of this study were not available at the time the present report was being prepared, but its background, and an indication of some of its findings, can be briefly outlined.

Within Dutch educational policy, much emphasis is placed on gearing education to the labour market. One way of doing so is to consider how the education system can best meet the needs of the labour market, but it is increasingly being recognised that it is not only this aspect of the economic function of education which is of relevance, but that thought should also be given to the active contribution made by education itself to the nature of economic activity in the future. This, the Dutch Ministry feels:

> "... implies greater attention in education to such things as creativity, innovative ability, entrepreneurial spirit, and an international dimension with a view to promoting new, knowledge-intensive industries" (1).

The educational goals underlying the broad concept of enterprise skills -- namely, to encourage young people to develop initiative and think about their future in a creative way -- are by no means new in themselves. What is new is the socio-economic light in which they are viewed. As the Dutch Ministry puts it:

> "Enterprise skills such as creativity and initiative are no longer regarded as important educational goals solely from the point of view of the personal development of the individual, but far more as qualities which are vital to future social and economic development".

This change in attitude in the Netherlands has not come out of the blue. Policy-makers concerned with equipping young people for adulthood and work are increasingly having to take account of the realities of modern society and are aware that their task is very much a matter of adequately preparing young people to cope with a world that is changing in ways that the Ministry summarises as follows:

> "The emergence of new technologies requires the individual to acquire new attitudes, flexibility and general skills, as well as occupational skills. This is especially true in the context of organisational changes in industry.
>
> The goal of full employment is unlikely to be achieved within the foreseeable future. This has implications for the young people of today who will be confronted with difficulties in finding placements and jobs and also in the long term for the whole process of transition from school to work.
>
> Owing to the shortage of job opportunities, more and more people are turning, whether through choice or otherwise, to self-employment as a possible alternative. This trend calls for a change in attitudes among the young and sets a challenge for the education system.
>
> As the economic crisis persists, the traditional concept of work is being called into question. This can be seen not only in the upsurge in self-employment but also in the growth of the "grey economy".

All this, the Ministry feels, points to:

> "... the conclusion that schools are faced with a fresh challenge in preparing (young people) for adulthood and work, namely, to equip them to rely more on their own initiative in looking for work now that jobs are no longer simply there for the taking. This challenge cannot be met if pupils are prepared for paid employment only as if this were the only possibility available. Moreover, there is no tradition of entrepreneurship in the Netherlands as there is in the United States. Accordingly, most Dutch people are unfamiliar with enterprise and only begin to take an interest in it once they become personally affected, for instance on starting a new job in a small company or on setting up a business of their own. An early introduction to entrepreneurship would mean that entrepreneurs would start off on a better footing... employees would have a better understanding of their employer's aims, and managers in large companies would take a more entrepreneurial approach, a concept sometimes called intrapreneurship".

The Ministry has compiled a record of all teaching material, initiatives and developments relating to familiarising students in schools with enterprise. The search for these produced a diverse collection of initiatives, and the information gathered was classified under four headings (1):

- -- initiatives and material developed within the formal education system, subclassified into, first, teaching materials and methods and, secondly, activities based on group work by students;

-- initiatives and material developed as a separate part of the formal education system;

-- material and activities developed within individual careers and educational guidance;

-- initiatives which provide help for new businesses outside schools.

Teaching materials and methods

These included not just teaching packs, books and pamphlets, but also audio-visual material, computer-assisted learning materials, the use of outsiders as expert resources, and of visits to and placements within enterprises. Subjects in which enterprise materials could be found ranged from peace studies to energy. Computer-assisted material included *Met Jeugdondernemingsspel* (*The youth enterprise game*), in which teams of 3-10 players form the board of an enterprise, with the effect of their decisions shown by the computer. The game was developed by the Association of Young Entrepreneurs in association with the University of Brabant and a computer company. Printed material designed for use by young people includes *Eigen Baas* ("Own Boss"), which consists of a box of cards providing information and guidance about the process of starting up an enterprise or voluntary activity. The pack is designed for use by groups and to guide discussion about the problems to be overcome and the decisions to be taken. The pack is based on one developed by the Education for Neighbourhood Change project at Nottingham University in the United Kingdom, where it was called "Don't let them waste your time".

Group work

Activities in this field orientated towards familiarisation with enterprise included assignments, joint activities, and games. The assignments include students undertaking company assessments. The joint activities include "Junior Achiever"-type projects, with many variations. These activities are the result of an initiative by the Netherlands Federation of Junior Chambers of Commerce: a national project, *Youth Enterprise*, was established in 1980 to further the understanding of secondary school students as to how businesses operate through setting up their own business projects. A variety of games were documented by the survey, including role-play and simulations of businesses.

Some conclusions

The preliminary conclusions of the Dutch study are that, overall, not a great deal of activity can currently be found in schools which aims to make students more familiar with enterprise. However, some individual schools are undertaking interesting activities, especially where there is an enthusiastic teacher. In addition, the survey indicates that activities and aids for familiarising students with enterprise have grown over the last five years. Most of the stimulation for the developments that have taken place has come from the business world, either at the local level from schools and businesses working together, or at the national level in the form of projects launched by employers' organisations. "Schools and colleges", the Ministry notes, "are rarely responsible for launching initiatives". Where they are involved in an enterprise activity, the survey found that the amount of time spent by students on it varies from one or two teaching periods to several days. Activities which take longer, such as Youth Enterprise group projects, tend to be worked on largely outside school time on a voluntary basis. The survey found that all types of secondary schools are involved, but with a slight emphasis on general secondary schools. Activities tend to be directed at senior students.

The final conclusion drawn by the Ministry is that:

> "... most of the teaching material available to do with enterprise does not fall within the compulsory curriculum, which means that schools are under no obligation to teach the subject. What is taught is therefore very much dependent on the personal commitment of the teachers concerned. Furthermore, material which it has taken much time and effort to develop is not always put to the fullest use because few other schools use it".

It is clear that the Ministry wishes to encourage schools to take a more active role as regards enterprise and, as a first step, plans to include reference to it in a forthcoming Green (discussion) Paper on the subject.

NOTE

1. Based on Enterprise Skills in Dutch Education, by the Ministry of Education and Science, Zoetermeer, for OECD/CERI, Paris, 1988 (internal document only).

SWEDEN (1)

The concerns of countries like Australia to increase retention rates in upper secondary schools are no doubt stimulated, in part at least, by the high retention rates that exist in Sweden. Here, over 80 per cent of students choose to continue their education in the various "lines" of study that can be pursued in upper secondary schools, lasting from two to four years.

The curriculum and organisational reforms which have led to this situation date back to 1971. Before then, upper secondary level education in Sweden had consisted of gymnasia, continuation schools, and vocational schools but, following the reforms of 1970, these were brought together into an integrated system in upper secondary schools. What happened afterwards is described by Dr. Mats Myrberg, the Research Secretary of the Swedish National Board of Education:

> "The 1970 reform of upper secondary schooling ... was an integral part of distributive policy. It was part of the build-up of the egalitarian society. Politicians and the general public had great confidence in education as an instrument of distributive policy...", but:
>
> "In 1971 came the first signs of rising youth unemployment at the same time as the first batch of students in the new integrated upper secondary school were commencing their studies... Employment difficulties for young persons persisted and were intensified during the second half of the 1970s. Youth unemployment was defined as one of the central problems of education policy, (which) came to centre on working life and employment... Since in reality the labour market was hierarchically segregated in the same way as upper secondary school was divided into educational levels, the upper secondary school education would have to be recast. Instead of the traditionally stratified theoretical and vocational lines, upper secondary school was to be divided into vertically integrated "employment sectors". The 1976 Upper Secondary Schools Commission was given the task of designing such an organisation" (2).

But this Commission did not put forward its recommendations until 1981 and in the meantime:

> "During the (early) 1970s ... elements of work experience were introduced into the general theoretical lines of study. The second half of the 1970s brought a rapid expansion of upper secondary schooling, partly because of rising youth unemployment, but also as a result of the baby boom of the 1960s. A large number of municipalities organised programmes for jobless youngsters who were unable or unwilling to attend upper secondary school, (mostly) ... organised on a separate basis from upper secondary school, which in effect made them a

> new, parallel school system... Upper secondary school was incapable of accommodating the wide span of student aptitudes involved (in) the 1970 system of lines of study" (2).

In Sweden, the unemployment crisis came to a head in 1983, but signs of an economic improvement were apparent by the beginning of the 1980s. From this time, Myrberg continues:

> "In enterprise and in industrial policy, the focus of attention switched from crisis industries to expanding ones. Personnel education became a central component of industrial development strategy. Vocational education in the public sector school system was also brought into focus... Several official enquiries and study groups were appointed to design educational arrangements for engineers and skilled workers. Industrial policy, then, set the tone of central educational problems at upper secondary and post-secondary level during the 1980s... The shift of perspective between the 1960s and the 1980s is unmistakable. Today in the 1980s, the central problems of upper secondary schooling originate from industry and industrial policy, whereas in the 1960s, the impetus came from the Riksdag (Parliament) and distributive policy..." (2).

There are two points to note in Myrberg's historical account. First, in terms of speed of reaction, education reforms moved more slowly than the changing economic and labour market circumstances of society. Secondly, the way in which specific industrial needs have come to influence education provision as a more dominant force than general public policy should be noted. The continuing dominance of these needs can be seen in the recommendations of a committee currently working for the Ministry of Education on ways to renew vocational education. Its main recommendations are:

- -- all upper secondary school vocational education programmes are to be of three years' duration;
- -- the third year is to be spent mainly in the workplace;
- -- programmes are to be divided into skill-defined modules which are separately renewable;
- -- permanent curricular groups should be established, including representatives of the employment sector, to maintain observation of developments in that sector on behalf of schools and signal any need for changes.

Thus upper secondary education in Sweden, learning from its post-1971 experience, is becoming both more responsive, and more quickly responsive, to economic and labour market change. It is therefore interesting to note the comments made by Mats Myrberg concerning the perceptions of industry and young people as they affect the subject matter of this research.

Industry

Large companies play a major role in the Swedish economy and, according to Myrberg (3), in general there is no great demand from them, as yet at least, for the kinds of enterprise "skills" described elsewhere in this report. Indeed, in some industries, such as construction, the demand is still for the specific skills of the job at hand. In agriculture and other primary industries such as timber, the tendency is towards creating large units of production and thus towards maintaining the "employee culture". But Myrberg also notes a general, if still rather unspecified trend in large companies to raise the general standards, skills and qualities of employees and, for example, in the automobile industry this means having well-qualified workers who have flexible, responsible, and team-work orientated attitudes required by the process operations which are used in modern industry. Myrberg also notes other trends which will demand "enterprise" on the part of some workers. First, the trend towards moving the level of decision-making downwards in large companies. Secondly, the tendency towards "contracting out" work, to the effect of turning former groups of employees into small businesses and, in company organisation terms, breaking down large units of production and management into smaller ones. These trends, Myrberg expects, will increase the demand among both employers and employees for enterprise "skills". Among smaller companies, he observes that the demand is still for workers with specific skills and for the burden of providing training for such skills not to rest with employers. The trend among larger companies to create a production-conscious "company culture" is not prevalent among smaller companies. But Myrberg points to the emergence of what he calls "new craft" small industries -- small businesses set up by bright young people who choose not to go on to higher education. Among these young people, he feels that training for entrepreneurial skills is needed in response to "consumer demand".

Young people

Myrberg points to other attitudes among young people which education must heed. For example, the small proportion of young people who do not stay on in upper secondary school education tend, if they do not work in the schemes established for the young unemployed (such as the "youth teams"), to get their early work experience in a variety of part-time, seasonal jobs. This is developing among these young people an entirely new perception of what work (or the lack of it) is -- in particular they are well-adjusted to change, accustomed to work being non-permanent, and have no long-term view and expectations. Loyalty to the job and the employer does not exist, except among some young people who work in the fast-food service industry. The jobs there bore them, and many young people pass through them quickly. But some tolerate the boredom of the job because they are attracted either to the "company culture" and/or to the glamorous surroundings of the work.

Myrberg also thinks that young people are changing their perceptions of what "good" work is, with the result that work in the public service is becoming less attractive and work in the private sector more so. This is in marked contrast to the attitudes of previous generations who were brought up in the context of a "safe" job-creating, as well as care-providing, welfare state.

But there are counter-pressures. For young people growing up in the cities, the price of housing forces many who work to remain with the family. Whilst this does not give young people the freedom and independence they seek, it represents low-cost living, releasing cash for consumer spending and creating self-interested life-styles where the young person feels no responsibility towards society generally and no great motivation to be enterprising.

Initiatives within upper secondary schools

Summing up, it can be said that, in Sweden, there are pressures and trends among two of the "consumers" of education -- employers and young people -- both for and against "enterprise". Nonetheless, initiatives exist within upper secondary schools in Sweden which encourage the development of enterprising qualities among young people. Interestingly, one of these has come into existence -- or rather, has been reintroduced into secondary education practice -- because of pressure from another "consumer": higher education.

This is the initiative know as *"Special Work"* projects. These involve upper secondary school students spending a two-week period working on projects of their own design. "Special Work" had existed in the traditional *gymnasia*, but was dropped from upper secondary practice in 1982. It was then reintroduced following complaints from some departments in universities that students were arriving there without a proper understanding of how to study and learn in the more creative and self-directed way demanded by many university courses. The *Teknik Service* projects, reported on in the 1986 OECD Report "Facets of the Transition to Adulthood" (4), are an example of "Special Work" as it appears in the technology line, but students pursuing other lines can undertake "Special Work", too. According to Mats Myrberg, early research into "Special Work" is showing it to be an effective way of encouraging young people to develop motivation and self-directed, problem-solving attitudes towards learning. But, he says, the universities are still complaining! (3).

Another initiative within upper secondary schools, but motivated by pressures from employers, is *"Subject-Related Practice"*, which has, like "Special Work", been introduced on an experimental basis since 1984 (5). 1985-1990 represents a period of experimentation and evaluation for this initiative. By introducing practical work experience to a wide range of subjects (in both vocational and theoretical lines) the aim is to help students (especially those in theoretical lines likely to go on into higher education) realise that production is the basis of the economy, as well as to motivate and encourage their studies.

As has been observed in other countries (for example Ireland) the particular economic and social problems of remote rural areas have, in Sweden, stimulated curriculum initiatives designed to encourage young people to remain in the area by helping them to develop the skills they need to make their living locally. The National Board of Education cites the *Art of Living* course (5) which has been established in the upper secondary school in the Vilhelmina municipality in the far north of Sweden as an example of such an initiative. It is a one-year course designed to enable students to learn specific survival and craft skills and to develop enterprising, self-reliant qualities in the broader sense. Myrberg points out that initiatives such as this are as much a specific response to falling school rolls in rural areas as to their general economic and social decline.

Within the school, but outside the curriculum, young people are also getting the experience of responsibility and enterprise through school co-operatives. One of these, operating in the upper secondary school in Kiruna in the north of Sweden, was also described in the 1986 Report on Facets of the Transition to Adulthood (4). According to the National Board of Education, these co-operatives, and the other types of initiative referred to above, are not just manifestations of a desire to introduce "enterprise", but also means of improving the "psycho-social" climate of schools, to improve the general motivation of students, and to impart in them and their parents a feeling of "engagement" in the schools by giving them responsibility (5). Currently, the National Board of Education is collecting examples of practices that have been adopted by schools towards such ends.

Initiatives among unemployed young people (6)

Although youth unemployment in Sweden has fallen dramatically since 1982 -- it then stood at 10.6 per cent among 16-19 year-olds as compared to 4.1 per cent in 1986 -- a very wide range of provisions are nonetheless available to the young unemployed, some operating within the school system, others under the auspices of the National Labour Market Board.

The best known element of these provisions is the Youth Team. Under the Youth Teams Act, which came into force in January 1984, young people to whom the Employment Service has not been able to offer employment or education as an alternative to unemployment, are entitled to four hours paid work per day, provided usually by municipal authorities. Although entitlement to Youth Team work continues until the age of 20, all Youth Team workers must spend two hours per week on job-seeking activities organised by the Employment Service. Entrepreneurial activities can be pursued by young people wishing to do so: young people aged over 18 working in their own businesses for at least four hours per day instead of being employed in Youth Teams are entitled to payments of SKr 600 per week for up to a year, as compared to SKr 680 per week for those working in Youth Teams. But, according to the National Labour Market Board, only a very small number of young people are choosing this entrepreneurial route. In addition, the Board points out that whilst in theory it is open to young people themselves to create their own Youth Team jobs -- by, for example, an individual approaching a municipal authority to see if a specific type of job could be created -- only rarely does this happen.

There are, however, some initiatives in Sweden funded under Labour Market Board provisions for the young unemployed which are endeavouring to promote an understanding and practice of enterprise. Two are now described.

"The Blade" (1)

"The Blade" is a worker co-operative and it has been offering cooperative-orientated education and training to the young unemployed (aged over 20), through courses lasting 63 weeks, since 1983. The aim is to prepare participants to establish their own worker co-operatives, but the rationale, expressed in one of The Blade's publicity leaflets, is:

> "... that their sense of guilt and failure at not getting a job is changed into a belief in their own ability to take care of their own lives...".

This is achieved by a programme of activities which mixes theory and practice. The theoretical studies include social studies and political education, learning about different forms of business association and organisation including co-operatives, Swedish, history (especially the history of ideas, of work and of popular movements such as the labour and co-operative movements), business administration, and finance and book-keeping. The practical activities are undertaken in three stages. Throughout, all the young people work in the co-operative itself, but during the first stage (ten weeks), the work takes the form of on-the-job training. During the next ten weeks, and thereafter, the young people are engaged in productive work activities within the co-operative. During the final 43 weeks, the young people, working as groups, begin to identify and plan the establishment of their own co-operatives.

But the foundation for such co-operative endeavour takes the form of, first, restoring the young people's faith in themselves and, thereafter, building their self-confidence. The Blade says:

> "Not until you have found yourself are you able to take responsibility for common work. Not until then are you able to learn as a mature individual".

The Varmlands Co-operatives (1)

The Varmlands Co-operatives is a foundation pursuing aims which are very similar to those of The Blade: to encourage young people to take action to create jobs through co-operative activity. The courses offered are, in consequence, also very similar. The following translated extracts from the scheme's publicity material, aimed at young people, is instructive:

> "Aims
>
> Improving self-confidence -- the training will give participants a basis for improved self-confidence.
>
> Knowledge and will -- the training will give participants the knowledge and the will to carry things through independently.
>
> Concrete knowledge -- the training will give participants concrete knowledge of cooperation, how to be enterprising in group relations, and practical vocational skills.
>
> Strong individuals strong group -- out of project work will emerge strong and knowledgeable individuals working in a strong and knowledgeable, and well-functioning, group.

Methods

The Base -- basic to the method is that all participants agree on the aims of the training. Plenty of time is devoted to this at the beginning of the course. 'Training in self-confidence' is another important aspect of the basis of the training.

Self-management -- whatever is to be done is to be done by the participants. We don't do anything for them. We discuss problems with participants. Decisions and carrying things out are the responsibility of the participants.

Avoiding making the training 'school-like' -- we take great care to avoid creating a school-like training setting. We think that a school-like setting will lead you into a state where you think: 'OK, this is just school and not the real world' so that you get to thinking that someone else will take care of the food, cleaning up, preparations, and so on. The groups are trained to realise that these things are their responsibility.

Economic responsibility -- from the very first day of the training course, the groups themselves take economic responsibility.

Demystifying 'the authority' -- participants learn to make contact with and solve problems with, state and local authorities. This means that we try to demystify the nature of 'authorities'. We regularly invite politicians and civil servants to come in and meet groups. The purpose of this is to help participants realise that they are just ordinary people carrying out functions which are useful to them.

Try, make mistakes, and try again! -- participants are encouraged to try different things and different ways of doing things. They are encouraged to learn that we all learn from our mistakes. We try to help people to stop being anxious about being wrong, and feeling awkward as a result, realising that everybody makes mistakes helps people develop confidence.

Learning to teach -- participants learn to teach to others what they are good at.

Improving one's knowledge -- developing self-confidence requires improving one's knowledge. We therefore also use traditional, teacher-led classes in subjects like book-keeping, theories of enterprise organisation, and also Swedish and mathematics."

There are two points to note from the foregoing. First, the fact that in these accounts, as in those of initiatives in other countries, there is an important link between "enterprise" and "self-confidence" through the latter being the precursor of the former. Secondly, "enterprise" is clearly not a substitute for "knowledge" to be engaged in by those who are deemed, or who for some reason deem themselves, to be incapable of the academic pursuit of "knowledge". Rather, the vital inter-relationship between enterprise and knowledge appears, the one being important to the other; in some cases, the former providing the motivational "spark" required for the pursuit of the latter. In many of the initiatives described in other countries, these kinds of links have been implicit; in some cases, an assumption of them has been quite explicit as, for example, will be evident in the later description of "Enterprise High" in the United States. This raises a question of great importance to this attempt at clarification: to what extent is enterprise a demonstrable stimulant to the pursuit of knowledge? The claim, as has been seen in the context of a number of initiatives, has been made, but as far as can be ascertained, no research has yet been done to prove or disprove it. This is hardly surprising, since enterprise in education is such a new field. But in Sweden, research has been carried out which throws some light on this question, and it is with a brief summary of the results that this section on the Swedish experience concludes.

Since 1975, a series of surveys has been carried out by the University of Uppsala to determine how former students of upper secondary schools viewed their experience at school. The surveys took place between one and a half and five years after the students left upper secondary school. Regardless of the period of time that elapsed between leaving school and the point of the survey, however, the responses show a very stable pattern.

The responses from students who took vocational lines in the upper secondary school indicate in the parlance of school reports: "good, but could have been better". It should be borne in mind that the vocational lines involve students in practical activities and, as a result of the 1970 reforms, general education courses in subjects such as Swedish, English, civics, etc. Among former students surveyed, some 50 per cent reported satisfaction with the vocational education they received, but over 60 per cent reported similar satisfaction with the associated general education they received. Commenting on this aspect of the results, Prof. Erik Wallin of the University notes:

> "Often the (former vocational line students) stress that the two years (at upper secondary school) have been of great importance to them. They say that their education has helped them to a self-reliance and a self-confidence they never had before or, in the worst but not unique cases, that the comprehensive (pre-upper secondary level) school took away from them. A former student from a technical line said: 'this education means a lot for me personally. I have never been so satisfied with any kind of education earlier. I was very insecure but in this education I sort of found myself'" (1).

Commenting on the responses of former students of theoretical (i.e. non-vocational) lines, Wallin notes:

> "... We are not as often told that their self-confidence has increased as a result of the experience of their schooling. The opposite is, rather, the case. One reason appears to lie in the fact that when students find it difficult to understand something, they tend to blame themselves..." (1).

As well as expressing satisfaction with their knowledge and skills, the former vocational line students also express feelings of security in the knowledge and skills they have, most especially in their vocational skills.

Wallin puts forward two reasons for this: firstly that, as students, they were given:

> "... tasks difficult enough to stimulate, but easy enough to manage and with a clear end. The other reason, and that which we feel should be given greater attention, is that the pupils in vocational lines had been given ... enough time to learn the lesson and do the task thoroughly enough to be able to say: 'I know this! I know how to do this.' This forms a base for security as well as self-confidence".

Wallin goes on to note that:

> "A similar security is not found to the same extent among former pupils from the three-year theoretical lines. It is not that they are dissatisfied with the knowledge they have achieved as preparation for further studies or for present job... they would like to have had more content at school that gave more contact with the surrounding society. This is a dissatisfaction with methods... Many of the former theoretical line pupils say that they have not been encouraged to draw conclusions, to discuss, to take responsibility for their learning during lessons, to try to get broad overviews of different fields or to foster a questioning attitude ... they talk of 'stamping in' or 'filling in the sausage'... in short, they think that they have achieved knowledge, (but) ... they have not experienced it as their own, as part of themselves, to help them live their lives..." (1).

It would be wrong to seek to read too much into these findings, but whilst they do not provide conclusive evidence to validate the enterprise as a motivational "spark" or connection which is observable in enterprise skills projects, they do appear to indicate that young people who are involved in educational activities having some form of practical element, and/or involving some learner responsibility and which are "difficult enough to stimulate, easy enough to manage", as Wallin aptly puts it, feel that such features improve their self-confidence and sense of security in what they know.

NOTES

1. Based on Enterprise and Enterprise Skills: Some Swedish Examples and a Rationale, by E. Wallin, CERI/OECD, Paris, 1988 (internal document only).

2. In Organisation and Content of Studies at the Post-Compulsory Level, OECD, Paris, 1987 (working paper), by Mats Myrberg, National Board of Education, Stockholm, 1987.

3. All the observations noted in the following paragraphs were made verbally by Mats Myrberg to the author in an interview in June 1987.

4. "Facets of the Transition to Adulthood - Report of a project of Enquiry", OECD/CERI, Paris, 1986 (document for general distribution).

5. Information provided to the author by the Swedish National Board of Education in June 1987.

6. For further information see Young Persons and Employment, National Labour Market Board, Stockholm, 1987.

UNITED KINGDOM

The 1986 OECD report Facets of the Transition to Adulthood (1) decribed how, in the United Kingdom, national schemes to cater to the needs of the young unemployed have, since they were first established in 1976, changed not just in their size (currently well over 250 000 young 16- and 17-year-olds have places on the existing Youth Training Scheme), but in terms of the content of the programmes they offer to young people. The 1976 scheme -- the Work Experience Programme -- provided, as its name suggests, a (six-month long) programme of work experience to young unemployed school leavers. By 1978 this programme was replaced by the Youth Opportunities Programme, which differed from the previous programme in a number of respects. The young people were provided with a mixture of on- and off-the-job training, offered not just by employers on their premises, as had been the case with the Work Experience Programme, but also in schemes established by public authorities, voluntary and community organisations, and youth agencies. As a result, the range of contexts in which the training was provided broadened: training workshops (similar in many ways to the present Production Schools in Denmark, Escuelas Taller in Spain and Entreprises Intermédiaires in France), community service agencies, environmental improvement projects, and information technology centres took their place alongside employers as training providers.

Early in the 1980s, the Youth Opportunities Programme was replaced by the Youth Training Scheme. In the new scheme, trainees continued to be provided with one year of training, but the scheme placed greater emphasis on vocational training, albeit still through a mix of on- and off-the-job activities. In 1986, the scheme began to transform itself into a two-year programme, and all young people now entering it at the age of 16, after leaving school, can remain in it for a two-year period.

In parallel with these major qualitative developments within the mainstream of government measures, other changes have been taking place both within individual projects operating under the Youth Training Scheme and those established outside it. In these changes, the theme of "enterprise" has been a clear one, and, as will be outlined, in the past year these changes have begun to be reflected in the mainstream. But before describing these recent developments, the origins of the "enterprise" developments in UK provision for the young unemployed are worthy of mention.

As in other countries, there are areas and localities within the United Kingdom where unemployment as a whole, and youth unemployment, are very much higher than the national average. In these areas, those responsible for the provision of youth training, even from the time of the first establishment of the Youth Opportunities Programme in 1978, became concerned as to whether, in reality, they were helping to produce not a better trained workforce, but a better trained body of unemployed people. Thus, in and outside the mainstream training schemes in such areas, emerged efforts to help young people create their own jobs. At the same time, many of the schemes themselves operated on the basis of training young people in the context of a workshop or production unit that manufactured goods or provided services that were for sale. These schemes included the training workshops and information technology centres -- indeed, a number of the latter (which had the primary purpose of training young people in the use of new technology) sold training itself to other groups in the community.

Thus training schemes themselves became more entrepreneurial in their operations and outlook. In some, this was a manifestation of a desire to become less dependent on government funding while the provision of training to enable young people to develop competence in a range of occupational skills has, especially since the advent of the Youth Training Scheme, been the principal objective of the projects it finances. Among the other objectives has always been one which is concerned with the personal development of young people. In the early years of the youth training programmes, activities geared towards this objective principally took the form of what were called "life and social skills courses", which were mostly concerned with personal presentation, job-hunting and interview techniques. Now, what is called "personal effectiveness" is a specified objective of the Youth Training Scheme and its meaning is broadly described, involving the development of initiative, abilities in inter-personal relationships, in accepting and discharging responsibilites, and in self-reliance. The Manpower Services Commission, which administers the Youth Training Scheme describes these as: "qualities that are needed generally in and outside the world of work" (2).

Thus schemes funded under the Youth Training Scheme have for some years had an obligation to offer provisions which promote the personal development of trainees. These have assumed added importance as more and more emphasis has come to be placed, by programme administrators, on the training not just of a skilled workforce, but one which is adaptable and versatile in its nature.

Therefore, for a variety of motivational reasons, practices involving either training schemes as a whole, or their participants, in being enterprising have been developing for some years in the United Kingdom. Outside the mainstream of training -- that is, among schemes not funded under the Youth Training Scheme or its predecessor programmes -- the main thrust of activity has been towards entrepreneurship. As was described in the 1986 OECD report referred to above (1), four national initiatives have been established in the United kingdom to encourage and enable young people to start their own businesses or move into self-employment. Two of these provide finance: the Youth Enterprise Scheme and the Youth Business Initiative. The former was established in 1984 with capital of £500 000 provided mainly by major companies and financial institutions. The Youth Business Initiative was initiated at around the same time by a major national charitable foundation. Both schemes offered small loans and grants to young business starters. In 1987, they merged to become the Prince's Youth Business Trust (3) under the patronage of the Prince of Wales. The third national scheme is Instant Muscle (4), a national movement of youth co-operatives, based on a model first developed by a group of unemployed young people in the west of England. The fourth scheme is sponsored by a major company, Shell UK, and is known as Livewire (3). Based on an annual competition, young people are encouraged to plan and create enterprise and business projects, which are judged on a regional and national basis.

Alongside these national initiatives, many local ones have developed, some of them linked to the national schemes. Prominent among these are so-called Youth Enterprise Centres, through which young people wishing to start in business can gain access to a wide range of facilities, including start-up, low-rent work spaces, training courses, common financial, administrative and support services, etc. The first of these centres was established in the north-east of England, in Newcastle-on-Tyne (5), but a number of municipal authorities and youth organisations have adopted and adapted the original model -- some 15 centres are now operating or are in an advanced state of planning across the United Kingdom. As well as gaining funds from national, local and EEC public authorities, many of the centres have been supported by the private sector. In Scotland a scheme to provide finance to young people wishing to start in business, known as Enterprise Funds for Youth, was established by a government development agency and operates through a number of local bodies (local enterprise agencies) which provide general advice and assistance to small businesses (6).

As well as these local and national initiatives, there is a wide range of individual, local schemes. Four of these illustrate the diversity of approach, in and outside the national training programmes, that can be found. For reasons that will become clear, the first of these is described in some detail, the others more briefly.

FACE

The Facility for Access to Creative Enterprise (FACE) operates a range of training and employment programmes for young people and adults. Prominent among them is the one for the young unemployed: an 800-place Youth Training Scheme-funded set of provisions, on offer in nine counties in the west and north-east of England. But this is a far cry from what FACE was when it was founded in September 1982: 15 trainees, three staff, and two small workshops in two towns. But while the scheme has expanded enormously, the methods and objectives remain unchanged: trainees get their training by working in small "handskill" businesses so that, after training, if these young people do not secure jobs in those businesses, they will at least have the skills -- both occupational and entrepreneurial -- to create their own. The purpose behind, and reason for, the existence of FACE are described by Anthony Horrocks, one if its founders, as follows:

> "The creation of employment -- real jobs -- has always been the prime objective of the FACE organisation. FACE does not believe in training people to become unemployed. However, if we look further ahead into the more distant future, if in our society manufacturing industry continues to shed employees at the rate at which it does presently, then the kinds of occupations that we are dealing with in the handskill sector will become even more important. Handskill products, by definition, cannot be mechanised out of existence. Many of the jobs we are now creating are based on skills which some people in the past have thought of as hobbies or pastimes. These very skills are now providing real jobs" (7).

In the original scheme, "handskill" meant just two occupations -- glass engraving and signwriting. Now FACE offers training in over 200 "handskill" occupations, including antique restoration, clothing manufacture, graphic design, masonry, sail-making, specialist joinery, weaving and wood turning. In FACE, therefore, small craft enterprises become the location for both individualised training in particular occupational skills and for enterprise development. The latter may take two forms. First, it may be in the form of an enterprise created by the trainee. Or, secondly, as Horrocks puts it:

> "If we can help with, for example, marketing advice to help a small business sell more of its services or products, then job opportunities in that business are greatly increased, in that the more effective and competitive we can help the small business to become, the more likelihood there is to be high quality training and employment possibilities" (7).

Based on its experience, FACE has developed, with the Royal Society of Arts (a national examining body), a "Certificate in Small Business and Enterprise Skills". The Society says that this certificate: "... aims to develop the basic skills of enterprise across a range of occupational sectors; within small business and in general employment; (and which are) applicable in a wide range of personal and social contexts outside work (8)," and it is presently piloting it through the eleven centres through which FACE operates. After this, it is hoped that the certificate will be available nationally. The Society describes the certificate as:

> "A profile certificate of competences with criteria for achievement attached to each profile sentence. This profile can then be used as a 'template' and applied to a wide range of learning/training programmes concerned with the development of enterprise skills... The Profile incorporates competences related to:
>
> -- Self-evaluation;
>
> -- Decision-making;
>
> -- Initiative-taking;
>
> -- Resource and time management;
>
> -- Opportunism and self-motivation;
>
> -- Problem-solving;
>
> -- Negotiation;
>
> -- Learning-to-learn skills.
>
> It also accredits a range of communication and numeracy skills vital to personal effectiveness, as well as detailed occupationally related competences..." (8).

Thus the FACE scheme, and the "qualification" in enterprise skills it is helping to develop certification (and therefore recognition) for, is of great relevance to this report.

New Ventures

New Ventures (1) is a scheme to enable young people to make the transition between preparing to start up in business, and doing so. It is operated by a national organisation, Project Full Employ, which is particularly concerned with the needs of young people from ethnic minorities. It runs training courses in a variety of occupational skills, both for 16-17 year-olds, under the Youth Training Scheme, and for 18+ year-olds, financed under government provisions for the training of adults. It is for the latter age-group that New Ventures provides. It takes the form of a 20-week course providing training in particular business skills and opportunities for the planning of the proposed business proposal and marketing and feasibility studies. Following completion of the course and business start-up, an "after care" service is provided.

The enterprising unemployed

In the two other local initiatives, means of promoting enterprise among unemployed young people in areas of very high unemployment are being explored. The first is not so much an individual initiative as a "movement", albeit a modestly-sized one. This concerns what are known as musicians collectives. These take the form of enterprises mounted by young people themselves, often without any adult or professional direction, to develop performance, production, rehearsal and (in some cases) recording facilities for young bands. These collectives -- a good example, and perhaps the most well-known is the Sunderland Musicians Collective which operates a performance and practice venue known as The Bunker -- are incorporated businesses, some of them formed as worker co-operatives, trading in the normal manner, but from which the young who run them draw no wages, but rather use their unemployment benefit as a social wage. Since these collectives are based, as noted, in areas of very high unemployment and since there is no personal financial gain, the young people do not infringe regulations concerning the receipt of benefit.

Operating around Chatham, the former naval dockyard town in Kent, the Standby scheme enables young unemployed people to work on small-scale enterprises while still in receipt of unemployment benefits. This is made possible because, instead of receiving cash payments, they earn "credits" in accounts they open which can, after a minimum period of six months, be translated into working capital to launch their own small businesses. National guidelines, officially endorsed, have been laid down to allow this arrangement to be replicated in other parts of the country (9).

ENTRAIN: Enterprise Training in the Youth Training Scheme

Late in 1986, the then Minister for Employment, Lord Young of Graffham (now Minister for Trade and Industry) announced details of a major new initiative to introduce enterprise training into the Youth Training Scheme through a newly established organisation called ENTRAIN, formed by a consortium of leading training, employment and enterprise development agencies. Whilst this initiative in some ways provided just a sharper focus to "personal effectiveness"-orientated activities that, as has been noted, were always an integral part of the training scheme and, in other ways, represented an acknowledgement and endorsement of the innovative work of FACE and other enterprise-orientated training projects, other motivations also lay behind the formalised introduction of enterprise training that ENTRAIN would bring. In 1985, a study published by two government agencies -- the Manpower Services Commission and the National Economic Development Council -- drew attention to the inadequate training of workers within and for industry in the United Kingdom as compared with that provided in such nations as Japan, Germany, and the United States. The study, entitled Competence and Competition, had this to say about enterprise training:

> "The policies of foreign competitor companies are intended to encourage their employees to act in a self-reliant or 'entrepreneurial' manner -- i.e., to look for opportunities and to take considered risks to bring about results" (10).

A major way in which the government could intervene to begin to change the picture was through its Youth Training Scheme and, in launching ENTRAIN, Lord Young said:

> "Only by encouraging enterprise among young people can Britain develop the kind of enterprise culture essential for the country's long-term prosperity. The trend everywhere now is in favour of the person who is skilled and adaptable, with the ability to learn how to learn. Young people who act in a self-reliant and entrepreneurial manner will be the workforce of tomorrow. Industrial success will come from harnessing the enterprise of such workers" (11).

Over an initial three-year period (1987-1990) the government is providing ENTRAIN with £1.5 millions to develop the resources and provide the practical assistance that training schemes will need in order to introduce the new form of training. In terms of content, the approach set out by ENTRAIN is extremely simple. It amounts to trainees, with the help of supervisors in their schemes, and of ENTRAIN (but not directed by either) identifying, planning, running and evaluating enterprise projects. These projects are envisaged as likely to be either of an adventurous nature (for example in the form of an expedition of some kind), or providing some form of community service (for example an environmental improvement project), or taking the form of a business (for example making goods for sale), or to make some kind of improvement in the scheme in which the young people are being trained (through, for example, the establishment of a "quality circle").

ENTRAIN envisages each trainee's experience of enterprise taking place in four stages. First, there is an introductory phase, during which trainees are introduced to the idea, and demands of, enterprise through various "awareness-raising" activities. This phase will also involve trainees in identifying possible project ideas and in assessing their strengths and weaknesses. During the second phase, trainees, either individually or in groups, begin to plan and prepare for their identified projects, which are undertaken in the third phase, and then evaluated, once completed, in the final phase.

The real challenge, and task, of ENTRAIN, is clearly a methodological one, and it is posed clearly in the material published by it:

> "The ENTRAIN programme of enterprise training is pioneering a new approach to skills development which goes beyond experiential learning (of the type involved in work experience, for example) and action learning (of the type involved in much vocational training). The new approach is enterprise learning. Enterprise learning is centred on a real (not simulated) enterprise project, one which meets a need, solves a problem, or exploits an idea or opportunity. Enterprise learning gives responsibility to trainees. They initiate, they plan, they organise, they evaluate, while trainers and others support and assist the trainees. Supervisors become enablers and facilitators; where specialist, technical help is needed by trainees, outsiders provide it" (12).

This reiterates a point about the role of the teacher/trainer seen in the context of schemes in other countries: the teacher/trainer becomes, in circumstances in which enterprise learning is taking place, that of "facilitator".

ENTRAIN describes what it calls the "skills of enterprise" as follows:

> "The skills involved in identifying and initiating ideas for enterprise projects. The skills of planning and preparing, of determining, scheduling, and doing what needs to be done. The skills of communicating and negotiating with others and of influencing them to secure what is needed. The skills of organising, managing and decision-making, of allocating and agreeing responsibilities, of ensuring that tasks are carried out, and of managing resources. The ability to resolve the problems, conflicts and tensions which arise, whether anticipated or expected, and to show a determined action towards project completion. The ability to be able to monitor and evaluate progress against objectives" (12).

The rationale behind all this is stated by ENTRAIN as follows:

> "Enterprising people have particular skills and qualities. They have the imagination and initiative to create ideas. They have the judgement, drive, determination and organising abilities to convert ideas into action. People need to be, and are, enterprising in a great variety of circumstances: enterprise is not the specialist preserve of entrepreneurs, by any means. Any problem which needs resolving, need which needs meeting, responsibility which needs discharging, or idea or opportunity which needs exploiting requires enterprise.... A rapidly changing society -- like the one we live in today -- needs enterprising people. Every aspect of social and economic life functions better when the prevailing culture is enterprising. Being enterprising means being adaptable, flexible, creative and active in the workplace or the community, within or outside employment, individually or in groups. It means being able to recognise needs or opportunities and to take action

> for the benefit of oneself or others. Enterprise training is a priority. Our present economic situation calls upon all of us to deal with uncertainty, change, and destiny in ways which demonstrate and command courage. Enterprise training is training for life. It is relevant to everyone" (12).

In the arena of post-compulsory education, ENTRAIN is undoubtedly the most ambitious initiative, in terms of both its scale and scope, to be found by the research which informs this report. Among the many things it clarifies, two stand out:

-- First, the essential change required among teachers/trainers is methodological. It says to them that they must change how they teach or train.

-- Secondly, it shows how very general "cultural" statements of underlying rationale, as stated by Ministers, can be "boiled down" to identifying particular "skills", small in number and clear in nature, and quite simple means of developing them.

Initiatives within secondary education

Space does not permit more than a brief account of the main types of initiative that can be found in secondary schools in the United Kingdom. The "Junior Achiever" type of initiative observed in the context of North America, the Netherlands and Australia and, no doubt, other OECD Member countries, too, is represented in the United Kingdom by Young Enterprise, which was formed in 1963. Currently, around 1 000 "YE" companies are formed by 15-19 year-old students each year, spread over a period of nine months, and taking up a total of approximately 55 hours for each student.

The government promotes enterprise within the school curriculum through the Mini-enterprise in Schools project, which was first launched in 1985. It is also backed by one of the major UK banks. The project encourages students to set up their own small businesses, and in September 1987, the Minister for Trade and Industry, Lord Young, announced a further allocation of £500 000 government funds to the project, with the targets of establishing a mini-enterprise in every middle and secondary school, of persuading every local education authority to run an in-service training course for teachers on enterprise education, and of running a series of local and national conferences and workshops. In announcing these targets, the Minister stressed that in this curriculum initiative, as in ENTRAIN, the objective is as much to do with personal development as with "business":

> "Although business provides the recognised area where enterprise is shown in its most favourable light, there are many other areas where enterprise is important, not least of which is the development of personal qualities in our young people" (13).

Enterprise education in a special school

A final example from the United Kingdom comes from Killard House, a secondary school in Northern Ireland which caters to pupils with learning difficulties, between the ages of 5 and 16. One of eight curriculum development initiatives introduced from 1984 onwards, the "enterprise education" project, aims to promote initiative, independence and self-confidence in 15-16 year-old girls, with a view to enabling them to pursue constructive, possibly income-generating activity and thus extending the vocational opportunities open to them upon leaving school.

The nature of the project itself -- production of knitwear -- was decided upon by the girls' teachers, but thereafter: "The project depended upon successful organisation and good classroom management. The role of the teacher had to change to that of supervision and consultation so that the girls should increasingly assume responsibility for all aspects of the manufacturing process from initial planning and costing to retailing and book-keeping" (14). Thus the girls had the opportunity to practise and develop:

"--initiative, self-confidence, responsibility;

-- adaptability;

-- communication skills (discussing, negotiating, persuading);

-- filling in forms/record-keeping;

-- money management and banking;

-- craft skills;

-- productive skills" (14).

The local community was very much involved in this project, which occupied half a day a week of each girl's time during the final year at school. A local retailer and a parent provided advice and demonstrated the use of, and skills involved in, knitting machines. Elderly people who visited the school regularly provided encouragement and information. As orders and sales increased, the girls felt the need for a better understanding of advertising and marketing techniques, and in the second year of the project, it was hoped to expand sales in the local market. Both teachers and pupils found that the main problem was one of adjustment:

> "The notion of change was, for some teachers, threatening at first, but when the work moved from large discussion groups to practical development involving individuals or small groups, this apprehension diminished, and staff could see that the initiatives were being used to incorporate, enrich and extend what they had been doing in the past.... At the start ... it was important to 'wean' the girls slowly in order to maintain their self-confidence. However, after this, they adjusted quickly to different methods and really enjoyed new learning experiences" (14).

NOTES

1. "Facets of the Transition to Adulthood -- Report of a Project of Enquiry", OECD/CERI, Paris, 1986 (document for general distribution).

2. In information material for sponsors published by the Manpower Services Commission, Sheffield, 1986.

3. See "Where now for youth enterprise?", by D.Grayson in *Initiatives*, October 1987, Centre for Employment Initiatives, London.

4. See "*Muscling in on unemployment*", by P.Raynes, in *Initiatives*, December 1986, Centre for Employment Initiatives, London.

5. See "New initiative for young entrepreneurs", by D.Irwin, in *Initiatives*, August 1984, Centre for Employment Initiatives, London.

6. See *Youth Enterprise in Britain*, Local Economic Development Information Service, Glasgow, 1986; "New training for have-a-go jobs", by D.Grayson, in *The Guardian*, London, 21 March 1986; "Striding ahead in the North East", by J.Roberts, in *Employment Gazette*, Department of Employment, London, September 1987; and *Young People: The self-employment option*, Occasional Paper No.16, The Planning Exchange, Glasgow, undated.

7. *Training for Jobs: a FACElift*, by A.Horrocks, in *Newscheck*, September 1987, Manpower Services Commission, Sheffield.

8. In *RSA News*, Spring 1987 issue, Royal Society of Arts, London.

9. See *1986 Annual Report*, Medway Towns Youth Unemployment Project, Gillingham, Kent, 1987.

10. *Competence and Competition*, National Economic Development Office/Manpower Services Commission, London, 1985.

11. Press Notice, Department of Employment, London, December 16, 1986. See also "All aboard ENTRAIN", in *Employment Gazette*, Department of Employment, London, February 1987.

12. In *ENTRAIN: You can do it* -- a series of four explanatory leaflets, ENTRAIN, Sheffield, 1987.

13. Press Notice, Department of Trade and Industry, London, 23 September, 1987.

14. In *Enterprise Education in a Special School*, No.10 (1987) in the *Innovations* series about new developments in the field of young people's transition from education to adult and working life, Ifaplan, for the Commission of the European Communities, Brussels, April 1987.

THE UNITED STATES

Enterprise in education and among young people takes many different forms in the United States. This account provides just a few examples, which illustrate both the wide variety of settings in which enterprise activities are being developed and the variety of motivations that lie behind them.

Education-based initiatives in rural areas

Project-based activities have long been a feature of vocational agriculture studies in schools and colleges in rural areas. The projects are vehicles for teaching, however, and not necessarily orientated towards exploiting local opportunities or addressing local needs. Nor are the students necessarily involved in identifying, planning and initiating them. But in the mid-1970s, Jonathan Sher suggested an approach to education for enterprise in schools in rural areas known as REAL -- Rural Education through Active Learning. Part of the motivation behind Sher's ideas was the same as is noted elsewhere in this report in the context of other initiatives in rural areas -- rural economic decline, manifested in young people migrating from their home areas. Sher saw school-based enterprises, mounted by young people, as a means of creating jobs, strengthening ties between young people in rural areas and their communities, giving young people real-life responsibilities, and offering entrepreneurial training. Sher felt that the school-based enterprise should initially complement and eventually replace traditional vocational training in the schools and function as a community development corporation working for the economic and social good of the local community.

Between 1978 and 1982, operating in Brooks County in rural south Georgia, the REAL jobs project demonstrated how these goals -- or at least some of them -- could be realised in practice (1). The catalyst for this was Paul Delargy, who first became interested in the idea of income-generating programmes within education when he read Sher's book: Education in Rural America: A Reassessment of Conventional Wisdom (2), in which Sher set out his ideas. Brooks County is a poor, rural, predominantly black school district, having high drop-out rates among high school students. Brooks County High School has a student population of 1 000 enrolled in grades eight-twelve: 63 per cent are black; 70 per cent come from families living below the poverty level. The project began with an assessment of community needs carried out by students. This revealed, among various things, that the lack of local child-care facilities was preventing many women from working and limiting the development of many young children. So, with community support, the students built and still operate a child-care centre on the school grounds. Catering to 40-50 children each day, 40 students provide the care as part of a two-year educational course, which will qualify them for a Georgia State licence as certified day-care aides. It is the only school-based facility in the state which is so recognised.

Three other enterprises were started -- a swine-breeding farm which supplies feeder pigs to local farmers; a construction enterprise which serves the local community and has undertaken a variety of small-scale building and renovation projects; and a book-keeping service. During the first 18 months of REAL, 168 students (about a third of them "special education" pupils) were involved in the projects in school hours, and more than half of them opted to take paid work experience in the projects after school and during vacations. The REAL model of School Based Development Enterprises has stimulated other rural schools in Georgia. Students at Atkinson County High School, for example, started and operated a "quick-print" shop and are planning a dairy-goat operation (1).

Meanwhile, in the State of Arkansas, Sher's ideas were picked up by Robert Bell of the Arkansas Community Education Development Association. There, high schools in five towns have created school-based enterprises, including one producing a local newspaper, another running a maintenance shop called Handyman Inc., and another running a cinema (1).

In the State of Oklahoma, a national vocational/entrepreneurship demonstration project, the Rural Entrepreneurship Program was launched in 1981 (3). Under the programme, classes in entrepreneurship are run, using a curriculum package known as PACE (Program for Acquiring Competence in Entrepreneurship). This package was developed by the National Center for Research in Vocational Education, based at Ohio State University, which has also published a wide range of other curriculum and vocational materials on entrepreneurship (4). Three "vo-tech" (vocational-technical) schools participated in the Oklahoma project, which involves study courses and the development of "industrial incubators" at each of the three centres in which business ideas developed by students can be established (5). The courses are, first, a short one called "Introduction to Entrepreneurship", which is part of the standard curriculum for all students. A more intensive, longer course, called "Creating a New Enterprise" can then be taken by students actually planning to start a business. The participating schools are linked by computer to the state's Rural Enterprise Development Center, which seeks out innovative ideas upon which new enterprises might be based.

In these initiatives in rural areas, it is clear that the notion of enterprise is being used as a means to a number of ends. First, they actively contribute to the health of the local economy. Secondly, they link schools with their local communities. Thirdly, they are not in any way a replacement for academic or vocational learning (notwithstanding Sher's original ambitions to see them as a replacement of the latter), but vehicles through which academic and vocational learning can be achieved. Fourthly, they generate income: students are not paid for their work on the enterprises during school hours, but, as noted, they can earn income when they work on them out of school hours and during vacations. The enterprises need them because, like all enterprises, they do not close down for long periods each year as much as the students need the income. Fifthly, the enterprises are there, in part, to motivate students. This latter rationale also appears in the urban initiative which we now describe.

Initiatives in urban areas

> "Charita's Cafe and M&P Enterprises sound much like many of the roughly 300 000 other small businesses launched every year in the United States. They are run on shoestring budgets, with the owners the only employees. They offer products people are likely to pay good money for, and their owners mean to show a profit. But Charita's Cafe and M&P Enterprises are different. They are school projects, part of an alternative programme for drop-outs called Enterprise High. Located in Macomb County near Detroit, Michigan, this remarkable programme began 18 months ago in an abandoned elementary school with 25 students. Today it operates six campuses where some 300 mostly young people learn life skills while running their own businesses. If ever a programme filled a need, this is it. About 27 per cent of all American high school students leave school without diplomas. About two-thirds of drop-outs from age 16-22 are considered unemployable.... Nationwide, controlling or maintaining drop-outs costs taxpayers hundreds of billions of dollars. Worst of all, the lives of those who have left school early are likely to be unsatisfying as well as unproductive ... (many) ... often have lost most of their self-confidence.... Most see no value in what schools teach, can't tolerate sitting still for long, and can draw no connection between the classroom and the world they live in after school.
>
> The ideas underlying Enterprise High seem so simple, so grounded in traditional American values, that you wonder why no one ever tried something like it before. Enterprise High lets students combine their academic learning with experience of running small businesses of their own design". (6)

By 1985, the Enterprise High programme had expanded still more, to be operating 10 centres catering for over 500 students each year. By 1988, indeed, the programme was being replicated in three other states. How does it operate? Rick Benedict, the founder of the programme, describes the methods of Enterprise High as follows:

> "In order to operate their business ventures, students must utilise those basic academic and vocational skills associated with their business operation. Repetitious use of basic skills with staff feedback is conducive to basic skill improvement. Simultaneously, producing and selling products enhances student self-esteem, teaches them to work as a team, and helps them understand this culture's economic system and the business community's need for workers who behave productively and responsibly" (7).

But Benedict qualifies the above by adding:

> "Unlike vocational education, it is not the intent of this programme to prepare students for entry-level positions in ... specific fields, though that may be a consequence.... Rather, it is the intent of the programme to give those "at risk" of a life of dependency the option of autonomous living". (7)

Towards this objective of "autonomous functioning", the programme at Enterprise High consists of four elements:

Academic -- to enhance basic (reading, writing, mathematics and communication) skills.

Adult role preparation -- to prepare people for the roles they will face as autonomous adults (money managers, consumers, tenants, home-owners, employees, taxpayers, heads-of-households, spouses, parents, voters, etc.).

Social adjustment -- to help people work effectively and co-operatively as members of a team.

Self-adjustment -- to help people build self-esteem.

All these four elements are built into what Enterprise High terms four "curricular interventions": the enterprise itself; "integrated academics"; integrated adult role preparation; and quality circles for both business and academic work. A typical five-hour school day is usually split into an "academic" half and an "enterprise" half, the latter beginning and ending with a quality circle meeting. At Enterprise High students can earn up to six credits per year, for a maximum of two years, in English, mathematics, economics, business and "enterprise arts". Students receive up to ten points per hour for time-on-task within the programme, and in order to receive credit, students must earn at least 70 per cent of the year's possible points.

Enterprises which have been started by students -- all of them the result of a process of identifying ideas, investigating markets and financial feasibility, etc., with Enterprise High tutors and advisors termed "paraprofessionals" -- operate in a wide range of fields too numerous to detail in total. But they include: woodworking, foods, commercial arts and crafts, data and word processing, the performing arts, auto-mechanics, engine repair, general merchandising, computer repair, plastics and metals fabrication and graphic arts. As in the rural schemes decribed above, students derive incomes from their businesses.

Enterprise High has identified what it calls eight "enterprise basics" in its programme. These are:

-- employ positive rewards for constructive behaviour;

-- democratise and share decision-making with staff;

-- democratise and share decision-making with students;

-- holding the students in high esteem and respond to their needs with understanding and affection;

-- the enterprises themselves;

-- quality circle groups;

-- integrated adult role preparation;

-- integrated academic work.

Benedict, reflecting on the experience of Enterprise High, offers these conclusions:

> "Evidence collected over the past five years persuades us that our approach is generating (among a population that seemingly abandoned their expectation that school could play an important part in their future) renewed interest in schools, renewed belief in their capacities, and behavioural changes that are prerequisites to success in jobs and/or advanced training. This evidence, and our collective experience, leads us to the following thesis: if students are held in high esteem, unconditionally engage in an experiential, enquiry-centred curriculum that integrates academics and adult role preparation, receive positive reinforcement for their constructive behaviour and are afforded an appropriate, democratic share of decision-making authority, then students will mature constructively, towards autonomous adulthood" (7).

Some other enterprise-orientated initiatives in the United States are now briefly described.

"Be Your Own Boss"

This is a curriculum package which has been developed by ACCESS, Inc. (The Association for Cross Cultural Education and Social Studies) for use in high schools, and particularly among female students having an interest in entrepreneurship (8). The Be Your Own Boss (BYOB) programme enables students to examine personal interests, skills and values, increases their awareness of the barriers confronting women in the business world, and helps students learn and apply basic skills in decision-making, planning, communicating, and organising. The programme occupies a total of eight lessons, and includes a game called "Ventures".

The Youth Self-employment System

The Youth Self-employment System is a package of materials that has been developed by Dynamics for Youth, Inc. in Tacoma, Washington. The package includes a number of videos and is designed to be used by youth counsellors who want to offer an alternative to young people who are unable to secure employment in the labour market or to those who have entrepreneurial leanings. Describing the materials, Dynamics for Youth say:

> "Our experience has shown that a successful entrepreneurial initiative is a function of several very definite and important factors. First, a positive self-attitude and an understanding of the relationships between self-esteem and performance and how to control that relationship is critical.... Second, a basic understanding of our economic system and the possibilities it presents and rewards... Finally, a thorough analysis of job possibilities and how they match with personal interests, skills and expectations..." (9).

Jobs for Youth, Boston, Inc: Young Adult Business Initiatives

Jobs for Youth in Boston was established in 1976 with the objective of enhancing the long-term employability of low-income young adults through a range of employment, training and placement services and programmes. As a development of its wide "portfolio" of activities and services, Jobs for Youth has established Young Adult Business Initiatives based on the experience gained in the United Kingdom with the Youth Business Initiative (q.v.). The programme will provide start-up capital (of up to US$2 000), training, business advisers, access to further loans, job experience placements, and various types of technical assistance to young people wishing to start their own businesses. Jobs for Youth notes that youth entrepreneurship and self-employment programmes were developed in the United States in the 1970s as responses to youth unemployment and that research on them carried out by the Department of Labor:

> "... determined that those which placed maximum responsibility upon the youths themselves (in contrast to those which placed youthful workers under an adult manager) tended to have longer-term effects on the employability of participants" (10).

But, it goes on:

> "In none of these projects was there the concept of a small business conceived of by an individual young adult him/herself, planned and developed by that young adult, and solely operated by that young adult. Jobs for Youth contends that it is exactly this type of personally-developed business which has the highest potential to succeed ... given the kinds of support used so effectively in the British model. In essence, young adult-run businesses do have a major role to play in impacting the problem of youth unemployment if they offer young adults the chance to:
>
> -- utilise the skills, interests, and hopes they possess and wish to develop further;
>
> -- receive mentoring which does not 'tell the youth what to do'...;
>
> -- participate in all aspects of a business, take all necessary risks in that business, and in essence, make it on his/her own;
>
> -- reach for an extended education with a far greater sense of what is needed and why" (10).

Finally, mention should be made of Vocational Student Organizations in the United States. Each vocational education subject area in high schools and colleges offering vocational subjects has its own student organization with a structure which links them into their equivalent bodies at local state and national level. Vocational Student Organizations are thus an integral part of the total instructional programme and assist students in developing leadership skills, personal development, civic responsibility. They encourage members to excel through incentive and recognition for achievement programs. For example, local chapters meet with civic organizations, identify problems, volunteer their assistance and raise money.

NOTES

1. See Youth operated school-based development enterprises, Georgia School-based Development Enterprises, Athens, Georgia, undated; and "The High School in a Rural Economy", by S.Rosenfeld, in Foresight, Vol.3 No.2, Southern Growth Policies Board, North Carolina, 1985.

2. Education in Rural America: A Reassessment of Conventional Wisdom, by J.Sher, Westview Press, Colorado, 1977.

3. See Promoting Entrepreneurship in the Vocational-Technical Schools, Congressman W.Watkins, in The Entrepreneurial Economy, August 1983, Corporation for Enterprise Development, Washington D.C.

4. Listed in 1987 Products Catalog, National Center for Research in Vocational Education, Columbus, Ohio, 1987.

5. In The Vo-Tech Student Associations, State Department of Vocational and Technical Education, Stillwater, Oklahoma, 1983.

6. In "Enterprise High", by B.Coleman, in Inc, September 1984, Inc. Publishing Corporation, 1984.

7. In Enterprise High: Building Futures, R.Benedict, with D.Miller and R.Snell, The Center for Studies of Alternatives in Education, 1985.

8. For further information see Be Your Own Boss materials produced by ACCESS, Inc, Washington D.C., 1986.

9. In Youth Self-Employment Scheme, leaflet published by Dynamics for Youth, Inc, Tacoma, Washington, undated.

10. In The Young Adult Business Initiatives: Program Rationale, Jobs For Youth Boston, Inc, Boston, Massachusetts, 1987.

DEVELOPMENTS IN OTHER COUNTRIES

Neither the time nor the resources available to this study permitted a comprehensive review across all OECD Member countries of developments in the field of enterprise "skills". Nonetheless, a considerable amount of information was gathered during the course of the research from a number of countries, showing, among other things, just how widespread enterprise activities are, both in secondary education, and in the post-compulsory field. This section provides very brief summary accounts of *some* of the initiatives that have been taken.

Greece

As part of the development of the *Integrated Lykeio* (unified upper secondary schools for students aged 16-18), a variety of extra-curricular activities to link schools and communities have been mounted in several schools since 1985. The activities seek to link the resources of the school with social and economic needs in the local community and contribute to curriculum, guidance and community education activities. Other aims included:

> "To develop young people's initiative and sense of social responsibility; to help them learn how to work in a group; and to develop their self-confidence and maturity" (1).
>
> Among a variety of projects mounted by students in the school in the town of Rethymno was a study of the old part of the town:
>
> "The pupils photographed, researched and recorded many aspects of their local area, its history and culture. They found out about problems in the local community, and worked with local inhabitants, in collecting and spreading information about local problems. They organised their findings in written form, and at the end, presented their work as a finished study. At the end, they had become aware of the problems and conflicts between the old part and the modern part of their town and the difficulties inherent in reconciling the preservation of its culture and its future economic development" (1).

Another group of students undertook a project to examine the social and economic advantages and disadvantages of tourism. Yet another started a newspaper.

Italy

In Italy, co-operatives set up in schools by young people are becoming increasingly common in the *Scuola Media* (middle schools for students aged 11-14). They are seen as contributing to vocational guidance; as a means of strengthening school-community links; as developing students' abilities and concern for each other through group work; and as a practical form of education for enterprise.

In the Avellino area, the *Villanova Battista* middle school has co-operatives growing cacti and manufacturing traditional pottery; the *Gesualdo* middle school co-operative produces a newspaper; and the *Taurasi* school co-operative is involved in wine-making and apiculture (2).

In Modena, a co-operative was established in the *Barozzi Commercial Technical School*, membership of which is open to students, teachers, the school itself and the local chamber of commerce. The co-operative earned over 30 million lire in its first year (1982): part was retained and the rest distributed according to the level of work and time spent in the work of the co-operative by its members. Essentially, the co-operative undertakes research and consultancy work. Since 1982, it has undertaken five contracts, including a survey of the local knitwear industry for a social research body and one of occupations of students who have graduated (3).

An important background to the these developments is the law, passed in Italy in 1985, which promotes the establishment of young people's co-operatives of all kinds in the economically backward regions.

France

In France the *Missions locales* (local task-forces), first established in 1982, are a nationwide network of agencies which co-ordinate, stimulate and develop education, training, advisory and job-creation provisions for young people and especially disadvantaged young people who find it difficult to secure social and economic integration into society. By 1986, over 100 *Missions locales* existed. They have a dual role: to make contact with young people aged 16-25 who are experiencing difficulty with their vocational and social integration and maintain contact with them; and secondly, to co-ordinate the work of all local agencies to ensure that they offer adequate and relevant provisions to the young, in the fields of guidance and counselling, vocational training, employment and job creation. Jointly funded by central and local government, the *Missions locales* are independent bodies, usually having a governing body on which all the relevant local interests are represented.

In the *Missions*, as much stress is laid on participation *by* young people in activities as making provisions *for* them. The following is a list of activities (albeit a partial one) of such participative activities:

- -- projects for young people to create activities themselves can be found in the *Missions* in Nantes and Toulouse;

-- in many areas, the Missions launched entreprises intermédiaires, to provide temporary work and training for young people (a description of one of these is contained in the 1986 OECD Report, Facets of the Transition to Adulthood -- the Centre for Youth Employment Initiatives in Paris (4);

-- the Missions in Meaux and Roubaix promote the participation of young people in the management and implementation of renovation work in the neighbourhood;

-- the Missions in Saint-Dié, Saint-Etienne and Saint-Brieuc promote the participation of young people in manufacturing aids and providing services for elderly people;

-- in Montbéliard and Amiens, the Missions are helping young people to make videos; in La Seyne, the Mission is helping young people make radio programmes, while at Château-Arnoux, young people are producing a festival (5).

Spain and Denmark: "production workshops"

The Escuelas Taller (school-workshops) in Spain (6) and the Produktionsskole (production schools) in Denmark (7) are agencies established to provide vocational training and experience of work to young unemployed people in the context of actual production of goods and/or services for sale in self-contained working enterprises. They are similar in many ways to the training workshops established under the Youth Training Scheme in the United Kingdom and the entreprises intermédiaires established by Missions locales in France. While these schemes are run by adults, they are worth mentioning because, by their very nature, they do bring young people into closer contact and involvement with various aspects of enterprise:

-- because of their small size (typically 50 young people), decision-making about production and planning will involve participants and responsibility will often be devolved on to them for particular aspects of the production process;

-- staff in these types of schemes frequently talk of trying, as was seen in the case of the co-operatives in Sweden, to avoid creating a school-like atmosphere; one way in which some of these schemes achieve this is to involve, or delegate responsibility to, participants in decision-making about the conduct of the enterprise as a whole.

NOTES

1. In *School-community Linking*, No.2 (1987) in the *Innovations* series about new developments in the field of young people's transition from education to adult and working life, Ifaplan, for the Commission of the European Communities, Brussels, April 1987.

2. In *School Cooperatives*, No.4 (1987), in the *Innovations* series, *op. cit.*

3. In *School-Work Agency*, No.15 (1987), in the *Innovations* series, *op. cit.*

4. In "Facets of the Transition to Adulthood -- Report of a Project of Enquiry", OECD/CERI, Paris, 1986 (for general distribution).

5. In *The "Missions Locales": Local Task Forces*, No.13 (1987), in the *Innovations* series, *op. cit.*

6. Described in *Une expérience de développement endogène en Espagne* by, C.Prieto, note prepared for the OECD/ILE Programme, OECD, Paris, 1986.

7. Information provided to the author during a visit to the Flong Produktionhojsskole, Hedehusene, 1987.